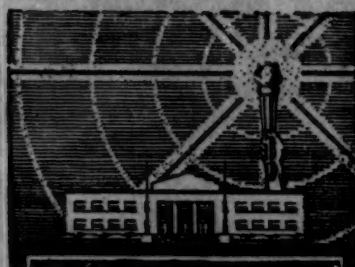


THE SOCIAL STUDIES



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VOLUME LI, NUMBER 3

MARCH, 1960

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The Social Studies

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As the Editor Sees It

The question of Federal aid to education has become a perennial issue. Some of the historical background is discussed elsewhere in these pages. The extent of Federal aid in the past, however, is small compared with the possibilities envisaged by its advocates nowadays. Costs of education have grown, and will grow, to figures far beyond any previous concept; and there is no question that present sources of school tax revenue are going to be quite inadequate. Yet there are many who view with extreme misgivings the serious entry of the Federal Government into the field of local school support.

The National Defense Education Act, in effect during the current school year, provides some examples of why local districts may be questioning the impact of more extensive Federal grants. The N.D.E.A., among other things, provides Federal funds to the various state departments of education to be distributed to local school districts for the improvement of instruction in science, mathematics, modern foreign languages, and guidance. These are in themselves commendable enough. On the surface there appears to be a very limited amount of Federal control involved. Yet there are hidden controls. For example, let us suppose that a local district believes that its greatest needs are in the social studies area. N.D.E.A. makes no grants in this field. The district in question therefore is faced with the choice either of refusing Federal grants, or of appropriating the required matching funds into instructional areas that are not its greatest problem. Quite directly the Federal Government is influencing the curriculum of this district.

The N.D.E.A. funds are granted on a matching basis, with the local district paying at least half of the cost of items for which Federal aid is sought. The purpose of the Act is frankly to induce local districts to spend more money on the stipulated sub-

ject areas than they might otherwise do. But this is like the improvident housewife at a bargain sale, who overspends her household budget to buy additional things at half price, and believes this is economical and wise. If her allowance is limited to \$40, she is getting no bargain by spending an additional \$5 to get a \$10 item that she may not really need. The over-expenditure may cause her to go without something next week that she really does need,—and on which there is no half-price sale.

There is no point here in commenting at length on the excessive amount of clerical and accounting time that must necessarily be supplied at every level of the operation of a Federal grant. Most small school districts do not have staffs large enough to absorb this extra paper work. The additional expenditure needed may make the grant look even less like a bargain. To give away money costs money, at least in public administration.

No Federal grant to the states for education can be free of controls. It is human nature for each recipient to seek to get as much as it can. The school district that refuses to accept Federal funds for any reason lays itself open to criticism by its own taxpayers. Yet acceptance may decisively influence local school policy. Federal funds for new schools are bound to intensify any legitimate local controversy as to the need for or type of new buildings. Federal grants for any specified purpose *ipso facto* create pressures to emphasize those particular purposes, when others may be important locally. Federal control may be unintentional but it will exist.

Are there not other means of educational support, more local in nature, where control should be? Cannot the Federal Government

(Continued on page 120)

Why All This Fuss About Federal Aid to Education?

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One unfamiliar with the historical precedents for federal aid to education might assume from recent congressional debates and delayed action and from the controversial issues appearing from time to time in educational literature that the question of federal aid to education is of recent origin. On the contrary, it appears from the literature that federal aid to education antedates both the formation of the Union and the adoption of the Constitution.

I

LAND GRANTS

The consensus is that the participation of the federal government in matters educational arose through the granting of public lands to the states. However, there is a lack of agreement as to how and under what circumstances the federal government became actively interested and engaged in this educational activity.

Moehlman states that federal policy of making grants to states, "probably had its inspiration and precedent in colonial practice in Connecticut, Massachusetts, and New York where the towns reserved certain lands for school purposes." Cubberley suggests that it arose somewhat accidentally through a series of grants of lands from the national domain to the states. Monroe infers that it may have resulted from the work of land speculators.

Cubberley, America's leading educational historian, also observed that:

In 1787 and 1788 two large parcels of land on the Ohio had been sold to companies, and to effect the sale the Continental Congress had been forced to grant

each a township of land for a future college, and to reserve section 16 in every township for schools and section 29 for religion. The actuating motive was more to raise much needed cash than to aid either education or religion, but these reservations and grants became the basis for a future national land policy.

Whether by accident, land speculation, or design to insure the common good and foster the national welfare, abundant precedent exists to support the claim that the origin of federal relations to education, the principle of federal aid for education, and the conviction that the federal government may properly concern itself with education originated in land grants for schools and colleges.

Perhaps the earliest suggestion of national land grants for education was contained in the proposals of Pickering for settling what is now the present state of Ohio. Article Seven of Pickering's proposals reads as follows:

These rights being secured, all the surplus lands shall be the common property of the State, and be disposed of for the common good; as for laying out roads, building bridges, creating public buildings, establishing schools and academies, defraying the expenses of government, and other public uses.

The Ordinance of 1785 made the Pickering proposal more specific by stating that "there shall be reserved the Lot No. 16 of every township for the maintenance of public schools, within said township." In adopting the Ordinance of 1787 for the government of that part of the territory lying north of the Ohio, Congress established a policy

without implementation for the Northwest Territory by declaring that, "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged."

This document has been spoken of as one of the most famous instruments of government ever issued. The historian Monroe quotes Daniel Webster as saying, "I doubt whether any single law of any law-giver, ancient or modern, has produced more distinct, marked and lasting character than the Ordinance of 1787." Monroe, himself, observes: "The Ordinance of 1787 has only one sentence concerning education, that is a notable one, for it states a social theory and initiates a policy . . . This is the charter of the public school system of the great Middle and Far West."

When the first State came to be admitted from the Northwest Territory, Ohio, in 1802, the question arose as to the right of the new State to tax the public lands of the United States. By way of settling this question amicably, Congress offered to the new State the proposition that if it would agree not to tax the lands of the United States, and the same when sold for five years after sale, (the purchase price usually being paid in five annual installments), the United States would in turn give to the new State the sixteenth section of land in every township for the maintenance of schools within the township. This educational policy of the federal government was retained when the new constitution was adopted and the Louisiana, Florida, California, and Oregon Territories were acquired.

From time to time the procedures for granting public lands to the new states were modified. One author states that "the national policy with respect to the granting of public lands went through three phases before the Congress finally established a permanent policy." Under the Ohio plan, which was also used in Alabama, Indiana, and Mississippi, these lands were granted to the inhabitants of each township for the use of schools. The Illinois agreement in 1818 also granted

these lands to the State for the use of the inhabitants of such townships, for the use of schools. Arkansas and Missouri followed the Illinois Plan.

The weaknesses of the Ohio and Illinois plans were remedied by the Michigan enabling act of 1836, in which Congress accepted the petition of the territorial convention to grant the sixteenth township to the State for the use of schools. The Michigan Plan became the standard method of making school land grants to all states admitted after this time. With the exception of Texas, every new state admitted to the Union between 1802 and 1850 benefited from the acceptance by Ohio of the land grant.

In 1850, the federal policy regarding assistance to education in the states was continued and expanded. When California was admitted to the Union in 1850, the grant was raised to two sections in each township, the sixteenth and thirty-sixth. In the admission of Utah, Arizona, and New Mexico, due to the low value of much of the land, four sections were granted to each of these states. Upon its admission to the Union in 1907, Oklahoma received the sixteenth and thirty-sixth sections in each township, and five million dollars in gold to compensate for exempted land in Indian Territory.

In addition to the regular land grants, special grants were made by the Congress during this period. The Ohio grant contained certain saline lands, and when these were sold the proceeds were added to the state school fund. When Indiana applied for permission to dispose of saline grants, Congress insisted that the proceeds be placed in the school fund. Instead of giving specific saline lands to states admitted later, Congress offered an alternative of the total saline land equivalent of two full townships.

The Internal Improvement Act of 1841 granted an additional 50,000 acres of public lands to each state admitted after 1800, except Maine, and the same was to be made to every new State admitted thereafter. The land was given for "internal improvements" but after 1845 the gift was diverted by the States to education. With the consent of Con-

gress, such land grants were given directly for schools in all cases except Minnesota.

Beginning with the admission of the two Dakotas, Montana, and Washington in 1889, the federal government began a more liberal and a much more intelligent policy in the matter of land grants to the states for education. Congress discontinued the general grant and instead made specific grants of land to each of the new states.

Specific objects were selected for aid and liberal amounts of land were given to the states for definite purposes. Minimum sale prices were fixed high enough to insure a reasonable income from the grants and new restrictions were included to guard against the diversion of funds. These grants reached a climax in the Enabling Act for Oklahoma in 1907. Under provisions of this act Oklahoma received in addition to the sixteenth and thirty-sixth sections in each township, the thirteenth section which was reserved equally for normal schools, agricultural colleges and the university, and the thirty-third section which was dedicated to charitable and penal institutions and public buildings.

Beginning with the Ohio grants in 1787, the federal government also made a grant of two townships of land for a university. Ohio received a third township in connection with the Symmes purchase in 1788. Tennessee received 100,000 acres for advanced education in the settlement of 1806, and Indiana was granted two townships in 1816 for a "seminary of learning." All public land states admitted after this date have received two townships and some have been given more land for advanced education.

A demand for agricultural, mechanical, and scientific education began to develop about 1838. Responding to the demand, Congress in 1859, passed a bill which provided for grants of 20,000 acres of public lands for each senator and representative in Congress for the establishment of a state college in agriculture and mechanics. Because of the opposition of the southern states and denominational colleges, President Buchanan vetoed the act, declaring that the proposed institutions would only offer unnecessary

competition to already existing institutions, that the grants of such large amounts of public lands would upset the land market, and that Congress had no authority to make such a grant.

In the midst of the war between the states a similar bill, with land appropriations increased to 30,000 acres for every senator and representative in Congress was passed by both houses. Commonly referred to as the First Morrill Act, this Act in addition to specifying instruction in agriculture and the mechanic arts, also provided for teaching military science and tactics. Although discussed to some extent as emergency legislation, it was not possible to start these colleges as quickly as first mentioned, and the dates for acceptance were later set forward to 1869, and for the opening of the schools in 1874. New states and those which had been involved in the war were also allowed to participate in the program.

The policy of making outright gifts of land to the states for common schools and advanced education started in 1787 and continued through 1912. Summing up the value of such contributions, Cubberley states:

These gifts by Congress to the new states of national lands for the endowment of public education, though begun in large part as a land-selling proposition, helped greatly in the early days to create a sentiment for state schools, stimulated the older states to set aside lands and money to create state school funds of their own, and did much to enable the new states to found state school systems instead of relying on the district or charity type of schools of the older states to the east.

II

GRANTS IN AID

The transition from land grants for educational purposes to grants of money was natural and easy. The first step was to allot money out of the results of the sale of the public lands. It was natural next to grant funds out of the general revenues of the government.

The idea of devoting a portion of the money derived from the sale of public lands

to the encouragement of education and of dividing it in some equal proportion among the States, seems often to have been considered in the early days of the Republic. In his last annual message to Congress in 1808, Jefferson called attention to the increasing surplus revenue in the Treasury derived from the tax on imports and from land sales. He asked:

Shall it lie unproductive in the public vaults? Shall the revenue be reduced? Or shall it not rather be appropriated to the improvement of roads, canals, rivers, education, and other great foundations of prosperity and union, under the powers which Congress may already possess, or when amendments of the Constitution may be approved by the States?

With the admission of Illinois in 1818, a portion (three-fifths of the five per cent) of the net proceeds from the sale of public lands was for the first time permitted to be used for education. In 1821, and again in 1826, the Committee on Public Lands recommended that a portion of the sales of public lands be granted to the states for educational purposes. Between 1817 and 1827, suggestions were made to distribute surplus revenue deposits to the states, "to be devoted to education, internal improvements, colonization, or redemption of existing debt."

By the 1836 act to regulate the Deposit of Public Money, the rapidly accruing federal surplus was distributed to the states, technically as deposit or loan, but actually as a grant. These payments totaled more than twenty-eight million dollars. The practice of sharing with the states proceeds from the sales of public land was continued in the case of all states admitted afterward, except Maine, Texas, and West Virginia, which contained no public lands.

In the case of all states admitted between 1845 and 1860, except two, the fund was at first given for internal improvements and later diverted by the states, with the permission of Congress, to their permanent school funds. In the case of all states admitted since 1860, the grant has been made by Congress

expressly for the permanent common school fund.

The second Morrill Act, passed in 1890, provided for an annual money appropriation to each of the land-grant colleges. In 1887, aid to the land-grant colleges was extended by the passage of the Hatch Act, which established agricultural experiment stations in conjunction with these colleges and financed them by special monetary appropriations for \$15,000 a year. The subvention was steadily increased by progressive amendments, the Appropriations Act of 1889, the Adams Act of 1906, the Nelson Amendment in 1907, the Purnell Act of 1925, and the Bankhead-Jones Act of 1935.

By an act of Congress in 1908, 25 per cent of the income derived from federal forests is paid each year to the states in which these forests are located and may be used for public roads and public schools in the counties where those forests exist.

The underlying principle was extended in 1920 to include non-metallic mineral deposits and 37½ per cent of all money received by the federal government from leases and royalties is returned to the states for public roads and public schools.

The Smith-Lever Act of 1914 provided funds for agricultural extension work under the direction of the Department of Agriculture, and under the control of the land-grant colleges, through teaching, demonstration and publication. In 1928, the Capper-Ketcham Act was approved which increased the appropriation for such purposes. Further increases in appropriations for extension work were provided by the Bankhead-Jones Act of 1935.

Under the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act, passed in 1917, appropriations were made for promoting vocational education and the training of vocational teachers. An Act passed in 1924 extended Smith-Hughes aid to the territories; the George-Reed Act of 1929 authorized additional supplemental appropriations amounting to \$2,500,000; and in 1934, Congress passed the George-Ellsey Act, which provided additional funds for this purpose.

The approval of the Smith-Sears Vocational Rehabilitation Act on June 27, 1918, provided for medical aid, vocational adjustment, and rehabilitation of the returned sailors and soldiers.

The example set by the Smith-Sears Act was followed in 1920, by the Smith-Bankhead Act, better known as the Federal Vocational Rehabilitation Act, which provides for the vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry or otherwise and their return to civil employment through subventions provided by the federal government.

Prior to the depression of the 1930's the federal government had provided only a minor portion of the total costs of education. During the depression years, however, several types of emergency or temporary programs provided direct or indirect federal aid to education at all levels. Relief funds were made available by the WPA to help keep the schools open. Other relief funds were voted to establish new educational services — nursery schools and kindergartens for example. Under the Public Works Administration, large sums were also made available for the construction of new school buildings.

The impact of World War II upon the American social structure resulted in further expansion of the relationships between the federal government and education. The development of contractual arrangements under which the federal government paid educational institutions for the training of military and civilian personnel, for research projects, and for other national emergency services was a product of World War II. Under the educational provisions of the G.I. Bill and the Rehabilitation Act, the federal government has provided a subsidy of education in which the majority of educational institutions participate. In order to assist schools and colleges in providing necessary expansion to meet the vastly increased post-war enrollments, the government has permitted the donation or sale at nominal cost of instructional equipment and facilities, temporary housing, and other facilities for the use of veteran students.

In 1946, Congress passed the National

School Lunch Act, as a measure of national security, to safeguard the health and well being of the Nation's children and to encourage the domestic consumption of nutritious agricultural commodities and other food. Grants are made to the states in cash and in commodities to assist them in providing an adequate supply of foods and facilities to operate and expand non-profit school lunch programs.

Under the George-Bardan Act of 1946, annual federal appropriations are authorized for grants to states for vocational education including costs of administration, teacher-training, vocational guidance, work experience training programs for out-of-school youth, training for apprentices, and equipment and supplies.

Congress passed a broader act for assistance to school districts in areas affected by federal activities in September 1950, to be administered by the Office of Education. The act authorized financial assistance to school districts for the maintenance and operation (1) where the local tax income has been reduced as a result of the acquisition of real property by the United States (2) where education is provided for children residing on federal property, (3) where education is provided for children whose parents are employed on federal property, and (4) where there has been a sudden and substantial increase in school enrollment as the result of federal activity. Funds for federally affected districts have been allocated by the 81st, 83rd, and 84th Congresses under Public Laws 815, 731, 382 for construction; and Public Laws 874, 248, 732 and 382 for operation. A recent report reveals that the federal government is spending some two billion dollars annually in training and educational activities. The federal government has also assumed direct responsibility for the education of special groups including the education of American Indian children, a school and college for the deaf, a university serving Negroes primarily, and training for the Armed Forces, the Coast Guard, and the Merchant Marine. It provides educational materials for blind children. It provides advisory services on the

development of apprentice training. So why all this fuss about federal aid to education?

(Editor's Note: Since the preparation of this article, the many-faceted National Defense Education Act has added an important chapter to the long history of Federal aid to education.)

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Soviet Education in Perspective

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In recent months the attention of the nation has been drawn with increasing frequency to the accomplishments of the Soviet educational system. An attempt to analyze the effectiveness of Soviet education involves a field of high controversy, with a broad body of sharply debated data. For example, considerable care must be exercised in obtaining facts and in making generalizations and interpretations of facts from official Soviet sources. Thus one may find that propaganda pamphlets or official speeches present glowing accounts of educational achievements, while Soviet educators writing for their own people frequently are self-critical. Magazine articles and newspaper accounts written for home consumption often reveal discrepancies between official education policies and actual practices. Nevertheless, though there is undoubtedly some bias in certain Soviet statistics it is commonly agreed that data obtained from official Soviet pronouncements have some meaning and significance.

The way in which a nation brings up its children and the type of educational activities it provides its citizens tend to reflect the thinking of that country. A study of the education of a people is a clue to what a given culture considers important as well as in what direction it is heading. This generalization applies with particular force to the Soviet Union where national life is controlled and dominated by a totalitarian government with a specific political philosophy. The evolution of Soviet education has not taken place in a vacuum. The Soviet educational system mirrors the basic premises inherent in Marxism-Leninism; it is designed to meet the needs of the state, not the needs of the individual. The state decides what skills are needed and in what proportion they are needed for the most efficient development of the state. For example, the state decides that a certain number of ballet stars are needed to entertain the people. Aspiring children throughout the country compete for enrollment in the few

ballet schools (there are now eleven). The Ballet School of the Bolshoi Theatre accepts only thirty boys and girls out of the five hundred who apply every year. Of the thirty children who are selected at age ten, about twenty continue through the school and graduate nine years later. Soviet education aims at education for excellence with freedom of choice resting with the state to the end that each may have the opportunity to aid in the optimum development of the state. Whatever the type of training the individual is permitted to enter, it is his duty to contribute his maximum to the state in return for state-provided education.

The Soviet educational system is designed to achieve two predominant goals: first, to meet the demands of the rapidly expanding economy by producing trained specialists in all fields; second, to inculcate the "correct" political orientation, that is, loyal belief in the government and in Communism. The importance of these two primary goals has fluctuated according to the times. In the early post-revolution period political indoctrination was paramount and educational standards suffered as a consequence. Since 1945 the demands of the national economy have received the greater emphasis and the recent Khrushchev edicts on education (to be discussed below) are a logical consequence of this orientation. Today roughly ten per cent of study hours are devoted to Marxism-Leninism but ten per cent over the years adds up to a fully adequate indoctrination by Communist standards.

It is in the schools that the basic foundations of Communism and the proper political attitudes are implanted. In the Soviet Union the ideal goal of education is to place everything in a political frame of reference. The changing propaganda themes of the Communist regime, as they are laid down by the party to fit changing needs, are hammered constantly and uniformly through the press and other communications media. But it is in the schools that the doctrinal bases are erected; the schools must prepare the intellect for the shifting party line and condition the mind to accept the fundamental premises

of Marxist-Leninist dogmas without reservation. Each subject in the program of studies is regarded as a means to the building of a Communist society. The concept of the class struggle, for example, is employed continuously at every level of Soviet education. In the words of Ivan Kairov, Minister of Education for the Federated Russian Republic: "Just because we don't teach Marx in the first ten grades, please don't conclude that our lower schools are non-political. Our aim is Communist education. This intellectual orientation permeates our whole system of education."

The Soviet encyclopedia's statement of the aims of education stresses this political emphasis in the educational system as follows:

To develop in children's minds the Communist morality, ideology and Soviet patriotism; to inspire unshakable love toward the Soviet fatherland, the Communist party and its leaders; to propagate Bolshevik vigilance; to put emphasis on atheist and internationalist education; to strengthen Bolshevik will power and character; to develop self-discipline.

This definition of Soviet aims is exactly in line with the subjects of all articles in the fifty-odd volumes of the *Great Soviet Encyclopedia*. Despite the relaxation of central control since the death of Stalin, the unquestioned adoption of the view of the universe known as dialectical materialism with all its concomitant assumptions and ramifications is rigidly expounded. It implies a great body of habits, attitudes, loyalties, and character traits to be carefully developed in Soviet youth.

It would be a serious mistake, however, to assume that Soviet education consists largely of Communist indoctrination. Many people have rationalized recent Soviet advancements in natural science fields by saying that their scientists and engineers are imposed upon by political direction and interference. However, the degree to which Soviet scientists and engineers are subject to such impositions has been greatly exaggerated. Many are not even members of the Communist party. If they deliver the goods, so to speak, their futures are assured. If they succeed in science

and avoid political controversy, they can get the Order of Lenin, live a life of ease and comfort. It may very well be true that Communists have found a formula for attaining high quality in scientific training and creative work in the natural sciences and acceptance and obedience in political, economic, philosophical, and moral matters. Whether this formula will hold up over the coming decades may turn out to be the crucial question of our historical epoch.

We have seen that a hard core of Marxism-Leninism is diffused throughout the Soviet educational system. This monolithic system is further enhanced by the fact that the Soviet people know the value and power of education. There is an excitement, an almost missionary zeal surrounding the educational process. Education can open the doors of privilege and promotion and everyone seeks the opportunity to acquire prestige and a better job. To be a professor, an artist, or a scientist in the Soviet Union means higher salaries, better living and working conditions, greater freedom, and more consumer goods. There is no lack of motivation among Soviet youth when good grades are the key to success; there are no cross currents often found in American society where students are not too sure that it's smart to be bright. In the Soviet Union the denigratory implications of the term "egghead" are not comprehended. Teachers are canonized, not caricatured. In bookstores, youngsters in their mid-teens are buying books on nuclear physics in preference to novels. They know that this is how to get ahead in the Soviet society of today. The importance of this attitude can hardly be exaggerated in a country where science and technology are on the march.

Lest the above picture sound too much like perfection, a number of caveats must now be issued. Hanging over this image of the Soviet system of education are a number of paradoxes, neglects, abuses, omissions, and inadequacies. After Sputnik went into orbit American educators went into a painful period of agonizing reappraisal. At times this attitude of *mea culpa* and self-flagellation bordered on panic as professors were pilloried and second-

ary schools tried in the court of an aroused public opinion. Perhaps nobody was more surprised than the Soviets at the near panic of the American reaction to Sputnik. Recovering from their astonishment, the Soviets lost no time in gleefully picking up the American theme and broadcasting to the world that Communism had shown capitalism how to educate youth. Nikita Khrushchev himself pricked this illusion recently with his order changing the Soviet educational system radically. He admitted, among other things, that the system was inefficient, discriminatory, and top heavy. Before examining the crucial importance of this edict in detail, we shall examine a number of the weaknesses found in the Soviet system, many of which stem from the Marxian foundations of education.

First of all, the monolith which seems to have so many advantages from the Communist point of view also contains serious defects. One obvious weakness is that pupils are taught by the book; rote memory characterized by pat answers to pat questions predominates. There is little emphasis on "thinking a problem through." A Russian refugee who entered an American school was completely at sea the first time her teacher asked her to write her personal opinion of a book she had read. Never before had she been asked to do anything but write out obediently a summary of what she had been told. Thus, while many Russian students may know more than American children their same age, they are very likely behind our youth in such abilities as ingenuity, imaginative qualities, and the ability to cope with new and strange situations. We could use some of the Russian factual thoroughness; they could well adopt our skill in training students to innovate and improvise in their work and play. In fact, while some American critics have contended that our curriculum is not academic enough, some Soviet critics argue that the Russian curriculum is too formal and overly academic.

The Soviet Union, like the United States, had an explosive growth of population after the Second World War and as a result the schools are badly crowded. To aid in solving this problem, Moscow, like Chicago, has re-

sorted to the two-platoon system in which two shifts of students use the same facilities at different hours. In addition to being overcrowded, Soviet schools have other negative factors. Classrooms are often old-fashioned and rather barren with outmoded equipment in laboratories and out-dated textbooks for students. Standard visual aids are often lacking and classrooms are badly lighted. Another criticism which is of interest in view of the heavy attack on American Schools of Education in some quarters recently is the corresponding attitude of the Soviet critics toward training received by teachers in the pedagogical institutes of the Soviet Union. Soviet critics assert that too many graduates from the institutes are not prepared to cope with a practical teaching situation in attempting to apply their theoretical training. Teaching methods have also been indicted in strong language. The Soviets are greatly concerned with the importance of relating the schools more closely to life and labor in the Soviet state.

One of the current major interests of American educators at all levels of instruction is the identification of the gifted student as early as possible and the development of his powers to the utmost of his ability. It comes as somewhat of a surprise that Russia has neither intelligence tests nor vocational guidance in its educational system. Moreover, there is no science of psychology as we know it in the United States. Psychological investigation in the Soviet Union revolves around the theories of Pavlov, who conducted the famous experiment demonstrating conditioned reflex in the salivation of dogs. Russian scientists believe (or are ordered to believe) that the mysteries of the human mind and personality can all be satisfactorily explained as a series of conditioned reflexes. Freudian psychology attracted some attention in the Soviet Union for a time but today psychoanalysis is considered incompatible with the materialism of Marxism-Leninism, which rejects the idea of a concept of the mind blocking off any large segment from interaction with reality. The concept of the unconscious, therefore, is considered a basic

theory which is faulty in its very obvious concern with subjective, internal forces as the motive power of human activity. Because Freud did not stress the behavior of individuals as the product of group struggles and strivings, nullified the role of socio-economic factors, and accorded the decisive role to biological and especially sexual factors, his theories are denounced as characteristic features of the ideology of the decaying bourgeoisie. The approach of Russian scientists to the study of human behavior is mechanistic in the extreme. Marxism asserts that man's ideas and consciousness are interwoven with material activity and material relations. The formation of ideas is simply a product of material activity or practice, and Soviet educational psychology strongly reflects this orientation.

The situation in psychology is duplicated in all of the social sciences, history, and philosophy. In these fields the party line dominates teaching and research. Soviet lectures in the social sciences are inevitably at the lowest possible level. All social phenomena must be interpreted in terms of a class struggle frame of reference within the web of Communist dogma. History will vary from year to year, the content depending on the current party line. Textbooks in history must be rewritten frequently to insure doctrinal purity. This distortion of history is not performed in isolated episodes. It is continuous, a daily and never-ending policy that involves the education of every Soviet child. It seems reasonable to assume that one of the great motivating goals driving Soviet students into the natural sciences is the higher possibility of survival in these "objective" scientific disciplines as compared to the mortality rates in the social sciences where failure to conform to current dogmas is fatal. The added factor of higher economic rewards in the scientific areas of study creates a high degree of attraction to the Soviet student pondering a career of service and prestige. Despite this constant indoctrination of the children in allegiance to the Communist Party and its leaders, information gained from *émigrés* suggests that there is perhaps more questioning in Soviet schools

and colleges than one might anticipate, questioning which arises out of inconsistencies between slogans and practice. While such questioning may offer no serious threat to the regime, it may yet keep alive the spirit of inquiry so dangerous to a dictatorship. This is the great unknown factor in any discussion of Soviet education: namely, whether literacy and education may release forces which will in time alter the superstructure of the totalitarian state. If an individual is taught to think in accordance with the scientific method in biology or physics, may he not transfer the method to the social and political areas of inquiry? Or can human nature be molded to any pattern if one has control of all the agencies of education and communication? How monolithic is the so-called monolithic control? Deviationism appears to mark the life of man in all ages and societies. Perhaps the most compelling evidence of actual and potential resistance to the regime is found in the necessity of maintaining a network of forced-labor camps, an extensive political police and the use of terror as an instrument of rule.

The ordinary American, because of his commitment to an open society, would probably tend to answer the above questions in terms of the ultimate triumph of liberty. It would be well, however, to cast aside the stereotypes formed in a free society and seriously consider some of the basic realities of the situation. Perhaps the most important of the negative considerations is the fact that the regime has already survived the greatest ordeals. The Revolution of 1917 and the Second World War shook the Soviet order to its very foundations. The child growing up in the Soviet Union acquires myths which must not be minimized. He is told from infancy that his country has an heroic past and a glorious future. The appeal of the apocalyptic vision of the coming victory of Communism has a vitality which motivates the younger generation in all their endeavors. It is quite possible that this vision has lost some of its appeal to the older generation, but the promotion of some degree of social mobility and the circulation of the elite have

provided a powerful stabilizing factor which tends to allay discontent.

All qualifications taken into account, some facets of the Soviet educational system have been highly creditable. But it should be noted that their system goes far in denying the humanistic educational tradition which is the heritage of Western civilization. The case of Boris Pasternak provided a dramatic illustration of the plight of a free spirit in a totalitarian regime. Soviet literature clearly remains the vassal of the Communist Party, and the grotesque literary postures adopted to parrot the party line would be comic if they were not so deeply tragic.

Any discussion of Soviet education must be concerned with the future goals of the system. A drastic reconstruction of the educational structure got under way in September, 1959, and will be completed in the next three to five years. This revolution was initiated by Nikita Khrushchev in April, 1958, when he criticized high school graduates for their lack of respect for manual labor and "bourgeois-minded" parents who used influence to keep their children out of the factory and the collective farms. One of the chief criticisms put forth by Marx in his critique of capitalist society was the separation between intellectual and physical labor. This undue specialization of labor produced a band of specialists who formed a distinct privileged class. Marx urged that children should be set to work early to appreciate the full complexity of labor as well as its rewards. The Russian parent of today has developed a middle class desire for security in many cases and wants to spare his children the discomforts and insecurity which go with a lack of education. Those with money, influence, or party connections have been surprisingly successful in placing their offspring a few rungs up the ladder of educational opportunity. Khrushchev conceded this influence when he commented to the effect that after the competition of the students in entrance examinations comes the competition of parents, and the latter is often far more decisive in securing admission.

Under the new system the majority of Soviet students will go directly from grammar schools into factories and farms. Grammar schools will run for eight years instead of seven and those who want more education will continue studying in three-year night courses. Thus the system of full-time middle schools (corresponding to American high schools) will be abandoned. A second group of teen-agers will learn trades or professions in three-year "secondary general-educational schools." They will not escape work since they will be affiliated with factories or collective farms. A third group of students will receive highly specialized university preparatory education. In some areas of higher education students may concentrate on their studies for the first two or three years; among these students will be included those especially gifted in science and mathematics. Thus the Soviets will not jeopardize scientific progress despite the dogma that all must do manual labor. Eventually, however, all "intellectuals" included in the network of higher education will be expected to include manual labor of some kind in their activities. Professors and teachers at universities and institutes of higher learning will be required to devote part of their time to physical labor.

One can only speculate on the results of this new plan insofar as it will affect Soviet potential in future years. The plan seems to have come about for two basic reasons. First, it will provide additional manpower for the nation's seven-year economic plan. The swing toward vocational education and child labor will free approximately three million students for work each year. Second, the educated youths have often turned out to be less reliable politically as a result of intellectual ferment on the campus. Break up campus life and these centers of unrest will be eliminated. Pampered intellectuals will now be forced to devote their spare time to working with their hands; little opportunity will remain for independent mental endeavors which might lead to dangerous thinking and snobbery.

The new Soviet plan for revision of the educational system highlights one fact which must never be ignored in any rational com-

parison of Soviet and American education. The two goals which the Communist planners must designate for any educational system they control are indoctrination and training, for under Communism the guidance of human destiny is the exclusive concern of the political and ideological dictatorship. It is the dictatorship which sets moral and ethical standards, codes of human behavior, and patterns of social organization. When we consider the future of Soviet education we are considering a system of training structured and consistently operated in terms of Communist goals. No one can deny the substantial advances by the Soviet Union in science and technology, nuclear weapons, and presumably in guided missiles. But these accomplishments of *training* are not adequate criteria for the evaluation of an educational system. Some observers have tended to generalize from the excellence of Soviet performance in selected fields of science and technology about the quality of Soviet education generally. Their implication would seem to be that the chief purpose of educational systems is to train engineers and physicists.

Moreover, some Western commentators have been absorbed in making purely numerical comparisons which are unfavorable to the performance of the American educational system. Such statistical comparisons miss the very essence of the problem and obscure the fundamental noncomparability of the functions of education in a democracy and in a dictatorship. Our task is infinitely more difficult and more challenging than that of Soviet education. To view Soviet education in perspective we must never lose sight of the fact that the vital elements of American education have no place in the Soviet scheme. If we attempt to meet the Soviet challenge by adopting her methods and goals and by emphasizing science and technology out of all proportion to other areas of education we shall achieve a Pyrrhic victory indeed. Science and technology must continue to advance but creative genius must also be directed into literature, the arts, the humanities and the social sciences.

Education is one of the most fundamental

realities of the Soviet system. The Bolshevik leaders have regarded organized education with utter seriousness, far surpassing in this respect the leaders of any free society. Writing in 1902, H. G. Wells foresaw what is perhaps the central fact of our world today:

"The nation that produces in the near future the largest proportional development of educated and intelligent engineers and agriculturists, of doctors, school-masters, professional soldiers and intellectually active people of all sorts . . . will certainly be the nation that will be the most powerful in warfare as in peace, will certainly be the ascendant or dominant nation before the year 2000."

To ignore or refuse to accept the reality of Soviet excellence in education at this critical juncture in history is to court disaster. Both the United States and the Soviet Union now have at their disposal the means to obliterate each other. If we can avoid mutual destruction the crucial problem will be whether the United States has the vigor and flexibility to meet the Soviet challenge in a long period of cold war competition involving the future of Western civilization. To compete successfully there must be a major revolution in the American sense of values. To bring about such a change is the heart of the matter and involves the longest and most difficult job of all. In the Soviet Union intellectuals and scientists are honored and respected (and paid in accord with that honor and respect). How can such a revolution come about in the United States where only yesterday "egg-head" was a term of derision and material gains lauded as the supreme criterion of suc-

cess? The answer is not in sight but the stakes are high and to grasp the dimensions of the challenge must necessarily be the first effort of the nation.

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A Neglected Skill

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If you look through curriculum bulletins and texts on teaching social studies, you will find specific skills related to listening, to reading, to writing and to reporting. All of these are very important and rightly should

be of great concern to the teacher. But isn't there another skill which should be of equal concern that is somewhat if not entirely neglected in many classrooms?

For example, let's think about *observation*.

Isn't observation a *social studies* skill? If the teacher thinks of social studies in its full meaning, he should have as one objective: to help children to become aware of and sensitive to the feelings of others. If that is an accepted objective then the teacher needs to think of social observation as an essential social studies skill and include practice in social observation as a definite, conscious aspect of the social studies teaching.

Let's consider some of the things the teacher may help the children to observe better than they would without direct guidance. What are some of the observations that socially competent adults have learned to make by trial and error procedures? Can children be helped to make these observations more effectively through direct teaching?

It seems that much trial and error could be eliminated through direct teaching and that there is an obvious need for it. For instance, let's start with the beginning of the school day. How many of the children observe their classmates when they arrive in the mornings? Do they see their classmates and greet them? For that matter, does the teacher see and greet each child?

It seems probable that the children could be helped to develop better understanding and higher respect for each other if they were taught to observe each other and include in their morning greeting some simple statement of approval or appreciation, to observe the work of individuals in their grade and discover those qualities which deserve commendation and follow through with appropriate complimentary remarks. If visitations were made in many of the classrooms of America it is very probable that a great lack of willingness, awareness and competence on the part of the children to observe each other's good personal qualities, good academic strengths and good social abilities and to recognize them through an appropriate form of complimentary remark would be discovered.

Following the development of the observation of personal appearance, the somewhat

more difficult observation of academic ability and the even more difficult observation of personal qualities, might come the most difficult observation of personal mood and in later years the observation of group mood. Doesn't it seem possible that we can teach children to recognize mood? Quite young children learn through trial and error to recognize the level of exasperation beyond which they know their parents may not be pushed with safety. Couldn't we introduce a program for increasing skill in the observation of mood in our social studies classes? For example we might make some observations of animals and their ways of showing approval and disapproval, then lead those observations toward a study of the ways people show approval or disapproval. We might apply it to increased understanding of the class mood that may develop under differing circumstances.

Perhaps the children could be led to see the way people use "name-calling" as a means of showing like or dislike for others. It seems probable that the ability to recognize "name-calling" for what it is, and the understanding of its real meaning, would help children to be more capable of dealing with those who use the device.

For instance, if children can be helped to discover that the statement, "Ricky is crazy," is a revelation of the speaker's state of mind and not necessarily a revelation of the facts, then they will find it easier to deal with "name-calling" without emotion, and, no doubt, will become less likely to use the name-calling device themselves.

In later grades it seems important to teach children to observe the judgments which their peers and adults make. If for example, a pupil says, "This is a good book," then what are his classmates to think? His remark, they may observe, is a judgment presumably based on a number of previously observed facts. If the pupils have been led in their observations to recognize this statement as a judgment, they may be taught to use it wisely; otherwise it will probably stop their thinking cold. Unless the children are

led to recognize judgment statements and are given help in knowing how to question the person who made the judgment, tactfully, critical thinking is not likely to emerge.

As soon as children have been led to recognize judgments for what they are, an application of this skill can be made to the pupils' own reports. They can be helped to give reports that have a minimum of personal judgment, and on the other hand they can be led to recognize implied judgments in the oral or written reports of others.

If this skill is directly developed by teachers throughout the elementary school social studies program, many of the children should acquire an acute sense for observing the difference between fact and judgment or between facts and inferences. That ability

would certainly help the adolescent and young adult to deal more intelligently with social problems. They would be less susceptible to emotionalized propaganda and less likely to form conclusions on the basis of judgments unsupported by facts.

It would seem that social studies teachers might well accept the responsibility for helping children improve the skill of social observation, proceeding from very simple observations of easily recognized qualities in the primary grades to the more complex observations of opinion, judgment or bias in the later grades or high school. If the children are to be taught to become democratic persons whose behavior is guided by democratic values, it seems essential that they be given direct, conscious guidance in this skill of social observation.

Natural Endowments, Merit and Achievement and Education As Prestige Factors

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Prestige is a constellation of qualities that social groups impute to the man, the position, or a symbol. While it is commonly accepted that the prestige-endowed individuals or groups are only the bearers of prestige attributes, more frequently than not such individuals are evaluated as having the very qualities of prestige. (At the moment, Marilyn Monroe, for instance, or Rita Hayworth before her, are the living symbols of the most desirable sexual attractiveness; yet their previous divorces indicate that their husbands, after living with these symbols, did not agree with the public.) This granting of usually non-

existent qualities which are worshipped is so integrated with many real and worthy attributes or features which promote imagination that it is more than difficult to distinguish between what is "real" and what is "symbolic" or just imaginary. There are many complex factors promoting prestige (age, youth, numbers, prowess, wealth, ideas, learning, etc.); they operate differently under different conditions and at different times and are usually inseparable from each other and other social factors, and many can be properly understood only within a historical-cultural framework. For instance, it is diffi-

cult to separate power from prestige, since power also promotes prestige, and prestige, in turn, promotes power.

Out of the numerous prestige factors, we shall consider the relationship between natural endowments, merit and achievement, and formal education.

NATURAL ENDOWMENTS

It can be taken for granted that certain native endowments are necessary for one to become a violinist, portrait painter, college athletic instructor, or jet pilot ace. Hence native capacity and personal achievement are related, although it is also obvious that many potential artists, athletes, executives and scholars go undiscovered, partly because of their background, which has lacked prestige.

Yet, these endowments can find their expression only within the societal framework. For instance, the motion picture stars of India, or the great painters of Tibet, have no prestige whatever in America.

Furthermore, the prestige of great individuals in the fields of science, art, invention, etc., is inseparable from the prestige ladder underlying each society.

Prestige can be granted to an individual either by his contemporaries or by posterity; thus, it depends upon his reputation for achievement among them. Obviously, the criteria vary according to shifting environmental conditions and varying forms of social organization. Notice, for instance, the differences of recognition granted individuals in the military organization in time of peace and in time of war. "The assumption that all individuals possessing exceptional mental capacity enjoy the opportunity for its fulfillment is unwarranted."¹ In fact, Davis's study of this field has led to the conclusion that: (1) the lower level of origin of the individual within a given system of stratification, the smaller the probability that he will reach eminence (the position of prestige); (2) the individual of a lower level of origin who reaches eminence "will do so most frequently in those fields requiring the least formal training"; (3) since the possibility of reaching the position of prestige is related to a position of "high socio-economic status," the

religious affiliation of prestige-carrying names is predominantly related to denominations providing members from the higher socio-economic levels; and (4) "The patterns of attainment of eminence by socio-economic origin for migrants to an area and for the natives" differs "because of selective factors in migration." In short, "the lower the level of origin of an individual, the smaller is the probability that he will attain eminence." It appears that the prestige factor is related more and more to the professional group, the skilled workmen, and the educational status.

A similar pessimistic conclusion was reached in 1954 by Francis Bello in a portrait of the rising young men of American science.² Here is the problem created by difficulties confronting "natural abilities" with social requirements. "The scientist, particularly the most gifted, is, by almost any definition, a maverick. His endowments, drives, interests, political opinions, and even religious beliefs are not, in most cases, those of the majority of society." Being fiercely independent, they appear to be "totally unprepared for the highly competitive and often poorly rewarded life ahead of them."³

In America, prestige is identified with mass production. The most, rather than the best, is the criterion. But in quality work, the better the output, the longer it takes as a general rule. Thus the person with ability must make a choice between prestige, which results from prolific output, and excellence. Since few can resist the pressure of popular opinion, the selection usually favors mass production.

For those less talented, prestige is a constant goal in a different sense. For the many, the physical objects of the immediate present carry the greatest prestige value. In all levels of society, the weight of opinion attaches increased importance to body comforts. Our entire industrial civilization is geared to push-button control, automatic temperature regulation, luxurious surroundings, etc.

MERIT AND ACHIEVEMENT

Reputation is the public awareness of some person's position. Position is access to the rewards of achievement that are socially

granted. A person has a reputation when his position is generally known; he has a position if he has received or is receiving some of the gains which a society or a group confers on achievement or on some semblance of achievement. Neither need to be founded on merit, but they are what merit "deserves" according to the mores of the society.

Individuals are also judged according to their prestige within a specific occupation, ("the best doctor in town," "a leading criminal lawyer," "the most independent outfit," etc.). Within a specialized occupational field, the prestige is granted by the peers — the individuals technically competent to judge his performance; they judge the skill, the complex technical knowledge. But this prestige might not be related to community prestige, since there it is affected by a wide range of irrelevant factors ("the best doctor" might be actually the one who, technically, is the worst).

But there need be no relationship between prestige and actual achievement. Even the moronic children of famed parents can coast on the reputation of their family's name. Consequently we must not confuse the symbols of prestige with the achievement for which the prestige is conferred. The kinds of achievements may vary; the special reputation with more or less competent judges will vary also. At any rate, in our culture the most successful are imitated by the less successful, either because of their rare prowess, or because of birth, marriage, favor, or luck.

Especially we think highly of the aristocracy in the making. For instance, Pope Urban IV, the son of a cobbler, who had worked at the trade, chose a cobbler's tools as his symbol, indicating his climb to power upward by achievement. In America, especially, the rising are granted prestige. Not kings, princes, and nobles, but bankers, railroad magnates, Hollywood tycoons, politicians in the high executive positions, educators, and artists occupy the high seat, hold the baton and beat time for the great orchestra. For here, more or less, society is no longer a many-sided pagoda of closed castes, but a

pyramid whose sides, narrowing toward the top, provide a hierarchy of places into which individuals climb, or to which they are admitted on demonstrating their superior merit. The bigger the audience, the greater the glory to be distributed among the actors.

Nearly all forms of cultural activities also generate power and thus prestige after their kind. Eminence in the creative arts carries a prestige that gives some weight to the opinions of the artist. Somewhat more impressive, though still rather transient and limited, is the power which springs from the popular acclaim of the successful actor, movie star, opera singer, novelist, columnist, etc. Here is an asset that gives influence as well as social standing to its possessor. Although such careers are promoted by the modern means of publicity, obviously, in most cases, factual achievements are the core of the reputation. Apparently, men of substantial achievement tend to earn more evidence of prestige in the long run than will the light and lucky, as shown in the reputation of the "Horatio Alger" personalities or the career of Colonel Lindbergh ("The Lone Eagle"). The formula of a poor but worthy hero who enters life as bootblack or newsboy, surmounts impossible obstacles and achieves the heights of success generates more prestige than, for instance, a successful marriage of Cinderella to a millionaire.

But in our modern civilization prestige is short-lived, even for the most competent ones. The head that wears the crown obviously always wobbles. The more dynamic the period, the more quickly the social sceptre passes from type to type. Just go over the names of the motion picture stars of only a decade ago, and what different types they represented, than do those of today. Often, therefore, continuing reputation must be earned by further achievements, since the previous merits offer no attraction. The high-gear demand for new names in all creative fields of endeavor (engineering, designs, fashion, motion pictures, television, etc.) to create new reputations is related to the problem of promoting and recruiting new talent. Hence this form of prestige is short-lived.

Although achievement is one of the means of getting prestige, it is not prerequisite. Some persons have name publicity without achieving anything (even anything evil), although the possession of the symbols may bring them some of the rewards which more logically-acquired reputations bring to others (Mrs. Simpson's marriage to the Duke of Windsor); obversely, someone whose achievement is of substantial usefulness to society may fail to get the reputation he deserves. At any rate, the reward of achievement is usually money, and a sort of power.

Notice also, however, that the prestige symbols are frequently accepted as a substitute for achievement; it can be used to buy or coerce content. Or, content in the form of money or power or other tangibles can be used to force the granting of the prestige-symbols. In 18th century England, a man of large wealth could found a "noble" family with title, landed estate and all appurtenances. These interplays are concealed by the passage of time, and the second or third generation assumes all the prerogatives and prestige of the founder's achievement. Balances shift between gains in content and gains in prestige when any symbol is dominant—and all gains are charged with emotion. One who possesses any of the rewards of socially valued achievement is likely to believe he has a moral right to all others.

The manipulations are worked both ways: prestige to get tangible contents; tangible contents to buy or capture prestige. Both kinds are imbued with emotion; each seems to its possessor to confer a moral claim to more.

EDUCATION

Education is also a relatively high prestige-granting factor of permanence. Formal education is one of the main means of achieving social positions of prestige, and sometimes the only way of reaching them (Supreme Court judges must have legal education; all physicians must satisfy definite educational requirements before being granted a license). In general, everywhere the "educated" man is rated higher than the illiterate. And the higher the rank reached by an individual in

the educational ladder, the higher is his prestige.

Another prestige body are the learned men who in some formal way have been tested, accredited and labelled. The *Gelehrte* in Germany, the academicians and professors everywhere, the rabbis of the Jewish congregations, have prestige because of their purely conventional learning.

Karl Mannheim identifies the educational prestige factors with four distinct criteria of cultivation and education, and distinguishes them by their occupational characteristics, their conduct and their social orientation.⁴

The first type is implied in the distinction between manual and intellectual performance "In a society of occupational specialization the particular nature of work becomes increasingly an attribute of the vocation and less and less a symbol of status." A second stage in the evaluation of intellectual occupations influences definitely social status; the earlier contrast between physical and mental performance is replaced by the new differentiation between the free professions and the trades, the former denoting the arts, the sciences, and religion "for their own sake and without remuneration" (the leisure class class theory); thus the freedom from pecuniary considerations is an important feature of the prestige which attaches to these occupations. Their pursuit for their own sake is possible only to gentlemen of independent means. The source of prestige is rooted in a non-manual performance and the disinterested devotion to a calling, this allowing high social position. Mannheim shows the example: how the physician, trained in the Hippocratic tradition left surgery and therapy and nursing aid to hired helpers, limiting himself to diagnostics and prognoses; or before the rise of modern bureaucracy, the appointing of honorary officials to run public affairs (unpaid squires, independent patri-cians). A third distinction is offered by that between the educated and the uneducated. Even today in the small towns in South America and Europe (especially Germany), these designations apply not only to professions, academic training, or feudal rank,

but also to the doctor, lawyer, teacher, minister, merchant, and manufacturer — those who periodically gather around the favored tavern table and meet at each other's homes. "Three interchangeable principles of selection are here at work, namely *cultivation*, *rank*, and *income*;" thus "a substantial income may compensate for some lack of culture and *vice versa*," and the resulting selection is based largely on similar social etiquette, a similar style of living, and a common sense of decorum." Finally, this conventional hallmark of the "educated" has been replaced by the formation of the bureaucratic hierarchy since the rise of the absolute state and its trained servants; it has identified the educated man with the possession of diplomas and career monopolies. In turn, the further ladder has been provided by those having academic training, and in Germany by the further gradation of diplomas after the 6th, 7th and 9th high school grades.⁵ "The standardization of training in itself is inescapable in an industrial society,"⁶ and has added a new criterion of intellectuality to the earlier genteel concepts of cultivation: the possession of applicable knowledge.

Yet the possession of "applicable knowledge" is not always necessary in this world of technology, as we can learn from the influence of prestige of "The Old School Tie":

"The classic case of the Old School Tie's influence in British politics occurred in 1935. Then 'Honest Stanley' Baldwin, as he later recalled, determined to form 'a government of which Harrow should not be ashamed.' The Prime Minister set a record with six Harrovians.

(In November, 1956) it was clear that Sir Anthony Eden had outdone Baldwin. His newly shuffled nineteen-man Cabinet boasts ten Old Etonians. Facing something of a modern Battle of Waterloo himself, Sir Anthony has also drawn heavily from the playing fields of Eton for his top defense advisors: eight out of nine went to Eton."⁷

¹ Beverly Davis, "Eminence and Level of Social Origin," *The American Journal of Sociology*, LIX (July, 1953), 11-18.

² Francis Bello, "The Young Scientists," *Fortune*, (June, 1954), 142-182.

³ A systematic analysis of the data available in Margaret A. Firth, Ed., *Handbook of Scientific and Technical Awards in the United States and Canada 1900-1952* (New York: Special Libraries Association, 1956), would be quite revealing.

⁴ Karl Mannheim, *Essays on the Sociology of Culture* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1956), 111.

⁵ *Ibid.*, 113.

⁶ *Ibid.*, 114.

⁷ "From Old Eton," *Newsweek*, XLVII, 20 (November 12, 1956), 95.

Ecuadorian Railroad

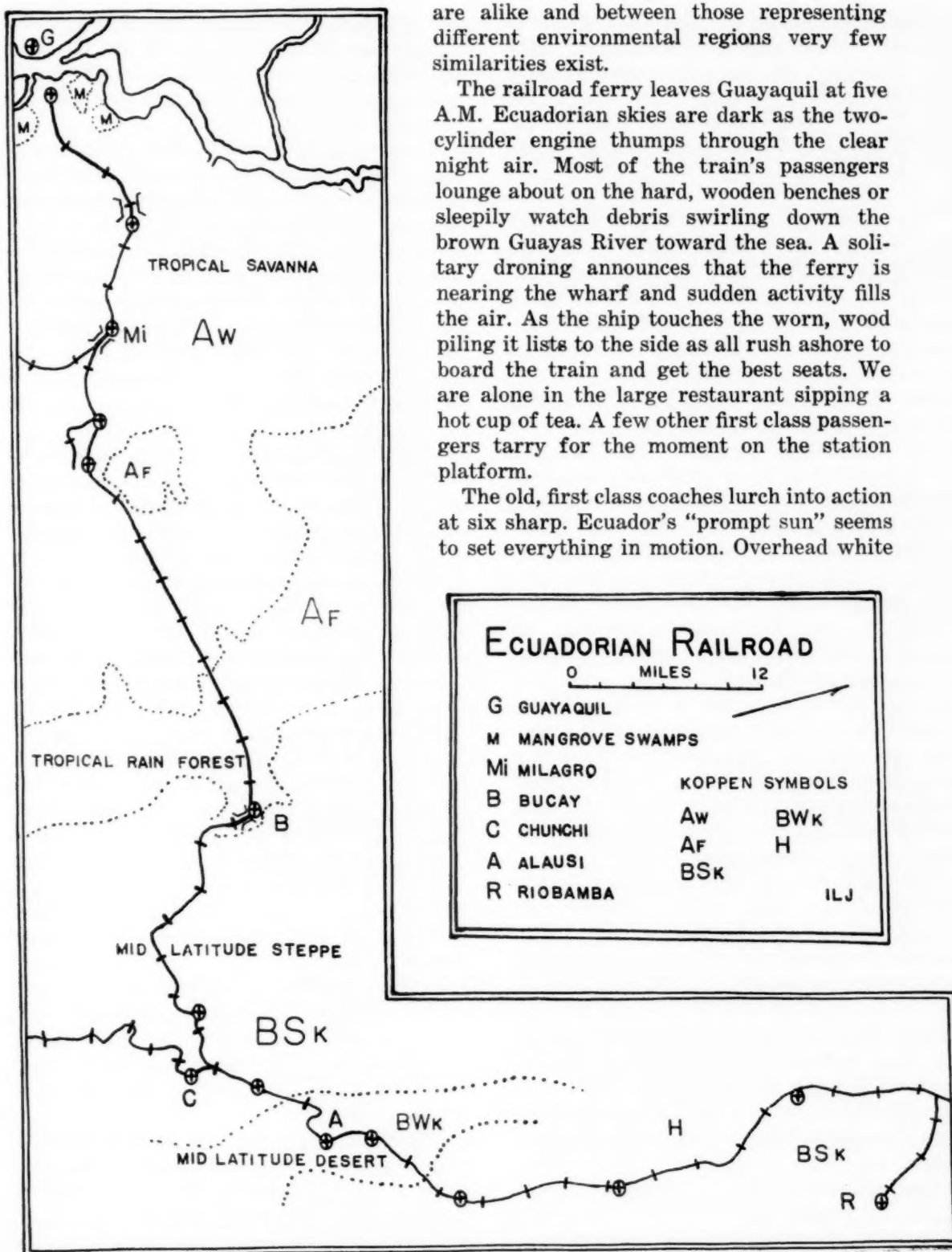
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An excellent example of altitude compensating for latitude is found along the Guayaquil to Quito Railroad. The one hundred and thirty miles from Guayaquil to Riobamba winds from sea level at Duran (the railhead on the east side of the Guayas Bay) to the high point near Alausi which is close to eleven thousand feet. From Alausi the railroad dips into several Ecuadorian basins until it stops,

overnight, at Riobamba, 9,500 feet. For a geographer, few locations offer the interest and the variety of this twelve hour train ride.

Each of the many stops made reflects the adjustment of the natives to their geographical region. These adjustments are mirrored in houses, food offered for sale, agriculture practiced along the track and clothes worn by the natives. Few of the many train stops



are alike and between those representing different environmental regions very few similarities exist.

The railroad ferry leaves Guayaquil at five A.M. Ecuadorian skies are dark as the two-cylinder engine thumps through the clear night air. Most of the train's passengers lounge about on the hard, wooden benches or sleepily watch debris swirling down the brown Guayas River toward the sea. A solitary droning announces that the ferry is nearing the wharf and sudden activity fills the air. As the ship touches the worn, wood piling it lists to the side as all rush ashore to board the train and get the best seats. We are alone in the large restaurant sipping a hot cup of tea. A few other first class passengers tarry for the moment on the station platform.

The old, first class coaches lurch into action at six sharp. Ecuador's "prompt sun" seems to set everything in motion. Overhead white

cranes in groups or singularly trace arrows in the sky. One can picture their homes in the tidewater flats and mangrove swamps along the Guayas Bay. We munch on a few of the ten or twelve different types of bananas for sale in Duran and we share an orange or two with our neighbors from Ecuador's tropical savannah.

The train never goes fast and it isn't very comfortable. Large signs advise that "No one is permitted to ride on the coach platforms when the train is in motion," but many people do. Most of the men riding there are going short distances between sugar plantations or frontier settlements.

The homesteader (long since a settled farmer) and the large, adobe plantations are in direct contrast to each other. Brightly painted walls and large courtyards are completely foreign to the half finished house on sticks that keeps out the rain for the homesteader. The individual farmer seems lonely too as contrasted to the thirty or forty men cutting cane on the plantation acres. It is no wonder that his wife tries to brighten the farmer's life with gaily colored tropical flowers and jungle pets.

As we pull into another of the flatland stations we choose between pineapples, coconuts and papayas. The natives tend to have a very dark skin with hints of negro blood predominating in most of their features. Bare feet and bare chests are the order of the day. Hammocks are much in evidence.

From Milagro east, the high grass of the tropical savanna gives way to denser and thicker stands of trees and vines. Large patches of tropical rain forest coalesce until we enter a thin strip of true selva before we come to Bucay.

More bananas, mangos, papaya, pineapples and other tropical fruit are sold in Bucay. As befits a town located on the edge of a region, highland articles are for sale also. The houses are both stick-and-thatch, and sawn lumber.

The train stops for a half hour lunch break. Tables and booths line the railroad track as the passengers hurry to pay their twelve cents for soup, chicken and rice, or bananas,

or potatoes. Engines are changed and the twelve cars in our train are divided into four different trains. From this point the maximum grade is 5.5 per cent. Before it was less than one per cent.

Steep walled mountains offer little turning room and our engine, in service since the railroad was started in 1908, has to back part way up the mountain.

Rain makes the afternoon a little cooler as the train follows the rushing water course of an Andean stream. Slowly, ever so slowly, we move higher into the cordillera. A sulphur mine appears on the left. Beneath it the railroad builders led a small stream through a tunnel. The railroad track now occupies the old stream bed.

An adobe factory seems out of place as the sun is hidden from view. Bunch grass and the woody stems of mid-latitude steppe vegetation support a few sheep, a goat or two and a cow every ten or twelve miles. Towns in the midst of these high Andean walls have white-washed, adobe sides. The buildings are of two story construction and many have wooden bars on the windows. Railroad tracks run down the middle of the main street. It seems, in many of these towns, as if there are no roads connecting them with the "outside," just lines of steel and the "once a day" train.

A few towns, like Chunchi, sport street lights, and trucks and cars can be seen in the streets. In every town Saturday is market day. The Latin market is a day of joy, a time of meeting and of gossiping — of selling and of trading — a day of happiness and light in the cold, extreme fastness of the high Andes.

Several hundred feet above us appears a smoke-belching, sigh-heaving, tiny engine and its three cars. The fourth class passengers wave to us from the top of their box car and the little train leans toward the cliff as it turns out of sight.

Our train approaches the highest pass and there, before us, rise sand dunes balconied by other white sand dunes. Homes are buried in their path. The railroad's efforts to save its tracks are laboriously successful and the dunes march on. Strong, chilling winds keep

most of the people inside the coaches as the train makes a rest stop. At the next station no one comes to sell anything. Beyond the scattered hummocks and closely grouped mud houses stretch the dunes, and then hills, and more dunes. There is no vegetation, only straggling handfuls of grass and rare bushes. It is cold and dreary. The mid latitude desert invites only a few to its hills, permits only a few to earn a living from its stern environment.

Slowly and easily the train eases down beside an east flowing stream. The Amazon is far away but these waters will reach it and drain into the Atlantic. A stout woman (or so she appears in her many dresses, slips and patches) lifts an adz and eagerly chops at the clodded earth. A frayed straw hat shields her head.

Beside a stone house three trees have been lashed into a silo and a high stack of maize stalks foretells a comfortable winter. Pixy-looking grass tepees dot the wheat fields. From the door of one, eyes peer at the fields. These are shelter for the young watchers of the fields, protecting the harvest from animals and the evils which work against the Andean farmer. In front of an adobe-brick, tiled-roof home sits a woman in a grey fedora patiently threshing wheat. Her arms move rhythmically into the pile of grain and then high over her head. Soft breezes from the higher lands blow the chaff into debris. "Tomorrow's bread" falls softly beneath her arms.

Power lines cross the track and then a large plant looms around a bend. All of Ecuador's cement comes from this one factory.

Clouds gather over twenty-thousand-foot Chimborazo. The shadows meet across cold tracks. Small, poncho-clad natives hurry home in their awkward, off-balance, Inca trot. In the distance a couple of shepherd boys lift sheep at least twice the boys' own weight and dump them in the crystal-cold mountain stream. Protesting bleats fill the evening air.

Riobamba lies before us but under a sheet of clouds. Into a cobbled courtyard as we pass, rides a vacero (cowboy.) The cold stones ring to his pony's hooves. With measured swing he reaches up to relieve his horse of its day-long burden. A faded red poncho slides down his arm. His wrists are rich brown and red. White cracks and flaked skin circle his hand as the saddle blanket slides to the ground. The poncho slides down over his sheepskin chaps and once again covers them. He strides toward the saddle house, every movement dictated by his long day in the saddle.

Quickly the Ecuadorian night falls. In the distance Sangay breathes fire to the skies. Beneath this ancient and active volcano spreads the Amazonian jungle. We have crossed the mighty Andes. It is as if the cycle had turned and we were once again in the tidelands of the "peaceful ocean." We have been from the Equator to cold northern deserts and we have traveled only 130 miles.

The Career-Family Conflict

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The so-called emancipation of the American woman has brought forth a great volume of literature concerning the difficult decisions that females must now make. Shall the modern woman eschew the new career possibilities opened to her, and assume the traditional

home-mother role? Shall she make her mark in her chosen profession, and leave the perpetuation of the species to some of her less talented sisters? Or shall she attempt some combination of the two roles — a course, it is frequently suggested, that can be success-

fully pursued only by the most capable if, indeed, it can be done at all?

Generally unnoticed has been the appearance of a rather similar dilemma for the married man in many occupational fields. Attention has been focused on the curtailments of the workday for a large segment of the working force, thus making it possible for many men to spend an increasing amount of time with their families. At the same time, however, men in executive, administrative, sales and selected professional fields often find that there is no limit to the amount of time that can be spent in furthering their careers. It is to members of these segments of the upper and middle classes of society that the choice must be made — shall it be a family or a career-oriented life? Or can the two really be successfully combined?

For the family-minded male who aspires to scale occupational heights in the previously mentioned fields conflict is inevitable. Time allotted to family activities cannot be devoted to the furtherance of the career. A choice may or may not be left to the individual; many demanding careers leave the male only the choice of dropping out if he resents the intrusions his work makes upon his family life.

William Whyte has indicated in forceful fashion the degree to which the organization man must give himself to the firm if success is to be achieved. In speaking of the executive Whyte notes:

Unlike the Catholic Church, the corporation cannot require celibacy and because its members are subject to the diversions of family ties the corporation does fall short of complete effectiveness. But not very far short and if it officially praises the hearth and family, it is because it can afford the mild hypocrisy. . . .¹

The situation in which the person doing sales work often finds himself is illustrative. If he is not actually selling he can be profitably cultivating acquaintanceships that may well lead to later sales. Some of this extra work goes on under the guise of recreation, since it can be effectively carried on at the

club or on the golf course. It can rarely be done in the family recreation room, however.

The college faculty member provides another illustration. Few members of this profession could hope to participate in the research projects and write the articles and books so essential to academic recognition during the hours that make up the normal work day. Those who go directly from the classroom to the seclusion of the study, locking outside the noise and distractions as well as the satisfactions of the family, are the ones who will soon be hailed as "productive." Those who just as regularly allot the evening and weekend hours to family activities will, of course, always be useful to round out the lower echelons of the college hierarchy.

Many men who wish to move regularly into better positions are now obliged to accept willingly job assignments that necessitate frequent and prolonged absences from the family group. The increasing far-flung nature of modern industrial empires insures that this physical separation will become more and more commonplace. A related tendency is that of accepting the frequent uprooting of family from community, as the occupationally mobile individual is shuttled from post to post around the country. Although this in itself does not directly contribute to the alienation of the male from his family it is further reflective of his willingness to subordinate family to career considerations.

Resolving the career versus family-life priorities is simplified in those homes where family relationships are so unfavorable that immersion in one's career provides a most welcome escape. It may be an escape from perpetual bickering, maddening boredom, or just more children around the house than the constitution can stand. It would be interesting to know what percentage of those who are conspicuously successful in their chosen careers are refugees from one of these situations. The old refrain about "behind every successful man there is a woman" may have some unintended truth.

It seems quite probable that a heavy percentage of the family-career conflicts are resolved in favor of the latter. American

culture, it has been frequently observed, inculcates in the individual, and particularly the man, a firm desire to "get ahead." Failure to do so is looked upon as a most serious reflection upon one's adequacy.

By contrast the cultural pressures upon the male to perform his family role in conspicuously meritorious fashion are practically non-existent. The one discernable concern — that the father should be a good provider — is completely consistent with career preoccupation. In this connection it is pertinent to note that the leading men's magazines seem completely oblivious to the male's family life, in marked contrast to those mass circulation publications aimed at the female audience.

Men in the types of positions that are being discussed often face expectations concerning choice of residence that further separate them from the family circle. A heavy percentage of these managerial, executive, and sales positions are found in the major metropolitan areas. It is *de rigueur*, in many instances, for the family residence to be located in an appropriate suburb much separated from the place of work near the heart of the metropolis.² This spacial separation means that substantial commuting time, in addition to the working hours, must be subtracted from the time available for family activities. It also means that whenever there are evening commitments it is unlikely that father will bother coming home for dinner. The spatial separation between office and home seems appropriately symbolic.

Whether the American family head chooses to immerse himself in his work or his family, or attempts some middle course, he is likely to experience some later uneasiness. The one who thought that he chose for the family may have second thoughts, wondering if the children might not have profited much more from the higher standard of living that was forfeited in providing companionship. The male who makes the opposite choice, on the other hand, sometimes reflects that achieving job success makes a shambles of the sort of family life that he one time envisioned. Whyte quotes a sales manager as saying:

"I sort of look forward to the day my

kids are grown up. . . . Then I won't have such a guilty conscience about neglecting them."³

To some degree the increase in the extravagant spending for toys, particularly conspicuous in the pre-Christmas period, represents an effort on the part of career-dedicated fathers to compensate for the lack of attention they can give their children.⁴ Both children and wives have grown accustomed to receiving more goods and less attention from the family head. Conveniently, those in the greatest need of conscience spending are often those most likely to be in a position to spend lavishly.

The career man may, on the other hand, become so absorbed in his work that his perfunctory relationship with his family is hardly noticed, much less cared about. Those who equate being a good father with being a good provider are not likely to question the time demands of the job. Some will successfully adjust by reassuring themselves that in the future — when career aspirations have been realized — the family will get the attention that it deserves. But it rarely does.

All of the relevant evidence would suggest that the immediate future will see a continuation in the increase in the number of men who will be faced with a career-family decision, as well as in the percentage who decide for career. The portion of the total working force in these time-demanding positions has been steadily increasing, and seems likely to continue to do so.⁵ Our colleges are busily turning out young men who have the credentials for entering these fields.

Since one of the most consistent findings concerning the much studied college student is that he is thoroughly dedicated to the goal of "getting ahead," the choice of a family centered existence by future bridegrooms will probably be increasingly rare. Indeed the more impetuous of the lot, who married while still in college, have already had to make a similar choice in emphasis between family and studies. It will soon become apparent, of course, that the demands upon time made by the professors were modest compared to the expectations of "the organization."

With the passage of a generation or two the inner conflicts resulting from conflicting expectations should all but disappear. The boys who grow up in homes where the father has been preoccupied with the furtherance of a career will undoubtedly assume that this absentee role is the expected one. Class and occupational variations will, of course, continue to exist, but they should cause no more confusion than they do at the present time.

The virtual elimination of the male from a significant parental role in the occupational groups referred to seems imminent. To be sure the income that he can provide will, in large measure, continue to determine the level of living of the family; and he may still be consulted about major expenditures. But it is his spouse who will make the vast majority

of the day to day decisions, as well as determine and implement the programs of child-upbringing. In those interpersonal relationships of a deep and intimate nature that have earned for the family the appellation "the matrix of personality" the father must, with increasing frequency, be dismissed as a negligible factor.

¹ Whyte, William H., Jr., *The Organization Man*, New York, 1956, p. 162.

² This is illustrated in Auguste C. Spector's *The Exurbanites*, Philadelphia, 1955.

³ Whyte, *op. cit.*, p. 162.

⁴ "Conspicuous Consumption" in toys is discussed in "Trains and Pink Dolls in Mink," *Newsweek*, 50: 106-7, November 11, 1957.

⁵ Joseph A. Kahl in *The American Class Structure*, New York, 1957, p. 265, cites census data showing that between 1910 and 1950 the percentage of males in the professions increased from 3.1% to 7.1%; the percentage of proprietors, managers and officials, other than farmers, increased from 7.9% to 10.3%.

The Teachers' Page

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EDUCATION FOR MATURITY

"It has been the assumption of education that learning would make a man wise, mature and creative. It is my unhappy conviction that education alone achieves none of these goals, but more frequently is a mask for immaturity, neurosis, and a lack of wisdom. Furthermore, more of the learning which has traditionally been looked upon as an essential attribute of the educated man has no necessary relevance either to creativity or to maturity. Instead many ingredients in the very process by which men become learned tend actively to prevent psychological growth. . . ."¹

This statement by Dr. Lawrence S. Kubie (M.D.), clinical professor of psychiatry, Yale University School of Medicine, is a strong indictment against education. It is, also, an indictment against society, for in the long run the kind of education society gets is the kind it wants. Specifically, Dr. Kubie believes

that "our great cultural efforts and instructions have failed" (1) in enabling 'human nature itself to change'; (2) in enabling "each generation to transmit to the next whatever wisdom it has gained about living;" and (3) in freeing "the enormous untapped creative potential which is latent in varying degrees in all men."

In developing this thesis, Dr. Kubie starts with the basic psychoanalytic truth that: "Every adult bears the imprint of the child."

The significance of the early childhood years in laying the foundation of the basic personality patterns of the adult is generally recognized. Our educational system, in part, and society, in general, fail in not training parents in intelligent and mature parenthood. This is, of course, part of the proverbial vicious circle—the parents of each new generation bear the imprint of their own childhood and the immaturity of their own

parents. The school years—the next stage in the development of the personality—unfortunately, according to Dr. Kubie, not only do not undo the mistakes of the parents, but perpetuate and intensify the same ones.

“... We face the obvious fact that the schoolroom and the school as a whole confront the child with substitute parents and siblings. This provides an opportunity to resolve the fateful and destructive conflicts of the nursery. Yet, the opportunity is not utilized. Instead, the child in school merely relives and buries even deeper the hates and loves and fears, and rivalries which had their origin in his home.”

Few people are aware of the continued influence that early childhood rivalries and loves, fostered in the home, continue to exert on the motives of the adult (chronologically) personality. It is primarily in clinical experience that this evidence is unquestioned. The following excerpt from a sociologist expresses this quite well.²

“If, standing on a crowded street corner, we could see all the adults . . . in terms of their relationships, we would see not the seemingly independent, self-resourceful individuals . . . but rebellious little sisters fighting against parental discrimination, resentful little brothers hating older sisters whose superiority in age and maturity frustrated their male egos, jealous older sisters resenting the attention bestowed on little sisters, sisters of all ages envying privileges of brothers of all ages. . . . (Most people) are still much under the influence of brother or sister, still smarting under childhood patterns. It does not matter that they are now successful in their own right; they must still convince brother or sister (or parent) of their success.”

One of the adjustments every child has to make is that concerning his relationship with and ultimately his reaction to authority. In its struggle with authority one child, according to Dr. Kubie, may become an obsessional dawdler about eating, washing, and dressing. Another youngster may become a compulsive rusher, plunging “headlong from one half-finished task to another, afraid . . .

lest he be overtaken by some nameless fate.” Instead of correcting these neurotic traits, our formal educational process tends to reinforce them. The result is that many “potentially brilliant and creative adults” adopt an attitude of “blind automatic reflection of all authority” . . . which manifests itself in “pseudo-rebellious productions whether they are literature, art, music, politics, or science.”

Dr. Kubie does not suggest the creation of a “Utopian school” in which there will be absent nursery battles. Conflicts between child and authority are an inevitable part of growing up. However, it is upon the *conscious* and not the *unconscious* level that these struggles should take place if neuroticism in adulthood is to be avoided. The school's responsibility is to see that when the child enters the classroom his struggle with authority should be on the conscious level rather than prolonging and intensifying his unconscious battles with parents and siblings.

“Neither traditional disciplinary education nor progressive education solves the technical problem which this goal involves.”

The former, even if apparently successful, tends to subjugate rather than to free, whereas the latter, although as originally practiced “encouraged the child to act out his problems”, failed to increase his self-understanding or self-mastery. In other words, neither practice leads to inner freedom.

One of the principal keys to developing maturity, according to Dr. Kubie, is attaining “self-knowledge in depth.” There are many scholars who are technical masters in their own fields but who lack maturity and wisdom. Up to now, “Wisdom, when it has graced anyone of us has come not by design but as a happy accident.”

REFLECTIONS ON EDUCATIONAL HEADLINES

The Sunday *New York Times* (August 9, 1959) carried the following three items of direct concern to education:

1. Rickover hails Reds' education; calls it main challenge to U.S.
2. Hearing is ended on sex teaching. California studies testimony on teacher's survey among students.
3. Illegitimacy rise alarms agencies. Aid

vs. punishment debate flares as the rate jumps among teen-agers.

There is a great deal of confusion about what is and what ought to be taught in American schools. A respected leader, such as Admiral Hyman Rickover, condemns American education as being soft and overloaded with frills. His comments make the front pages of the newspapers. An expert, such as Arthur Bestor, a university professor, argues in the same vein. His comments also make front page news. There are people of less stature who also make the news headlines, of a non-educational nature but having educational implications:

A sixteen year old boy, evidently a "good" student in school confesses murdering a small child.

A twenty year old mother goes "visiting" and her three small children, left by themselves, are burned to death when a fire broke out.

A young father beats his infant son to death because he cried too much.

There are also millions of boys and girls who go to school, quit or graduate, get jobs, get married, raise families and never make the front pages of newspapers.

Public education is and should be concerned with both the headline and non-headline maker. No sensible person in the field of education is opposed to good schools in Mr. Rickover's or Professor Bestor's sense. However, their view of education touches only a segment of the whole educational picture. To fulfill their responsibilities adequately our schools must concern themselves not with just one facet of the person—his intellectual development, important as it is; nor with one facet of society's problems—meeting the challenge of Russia, important as that also is; but with the *total education of the whole child*—intellectual, social, and emotional, as well as with those problems of society which have become the responsibility of the schools because other agencies have failed in their responsibilities. In this current debate about what the schools should or should not teach, the American public will be the loser if the concept of what constitutes the educational

responsibility of the schools is conceived in too narrow a sense; the American public will be the winner if the concept is conceived realistically, in terms of today's overall problems, not merely that of meeting the challenge of foreign competition.

Let us examine two of the news items cited above:

In the case of the California hearing in sex teaching, there were opposing points of view. The pupils critical of Mr. Cook (the teacher at Van Nuys High School, Los Angeles, who conducted an anonymous survey among his physiology class students concerning their sex practices) felt that the whole thing was "shocking" and "outrageous." Other pupils regarded the survey and the subsequent discussion "essential to young people approaching adulthood and marriage. The impact that the incident had on the community, in addition to the formal hearings and the wide publicity given to Mr. Cook and to the whole affair on a national scale (*Newsweek* also carried the story) was the precipitation of "wide public discussion over the proper roles of parents and schools on sex education". One doctor, a psychiatrist, stated that sex "simply could not be handled properly in a typical crowded classroom." Another doctor, a father of two daughters, "considered classroom instruction on specialized sex questions preferable to unauthoritative information children might pick up in public."

Editorial comments in two Los Angeles newspapers are interesting:

"The *Los Angeles Herald and Express* said editorially: The psychological effect of such a procedure can be highly dangerous, especially with youngsters who have been taught in their homes the moral values of modesty, privacy and moral respectability."

The *Los Angeles Mirror-News* said: "The outraged indignation of a few parents whose 18-year-olds were appraised of some of the not usual aspects of sex . . . seems a little far-fetched and silly . . . We've come too far along the path of common sense to revert to a birdsies-and-beesies approach to sex education."

In the light of the difference of opinion

regarding the place of sex education in our schools, the third news item cited at the beginning of this article assumes greater significance. Here are a few items from the article:

1. Over 200,000 babies a year are born out of wedlock. The rate per 10,000 unmarried females has tripled in the last two decades.
2. The possible sterilization of women was discussed by officials in some communities.
3. Some sociologists argue that more, not less, should be done to ease "the distress of young women caught in the dark web of disgrace, fear and panic . . ."

Note: In spite of the fact that critics give a poor rating (from an artistic point of view) to the film, "Blue Denim", it does focus attention on a very vital current social problem. One of the obvious conclusions presented by the film is that many modern day parents fail in the proper handling of their children.

4. "Punishment is not an answer to the crisis of the unwed mother."
5. The Office of Vital Statistics reports that the rate of increase has dropped for white but increased for non-white females. However, sociologists declare that "well-to-do families often conceal the plight of an unmarried pregnant daughter" by arranging to have the baby adopted quietly by another family.
6. Some girls under fifteen confess to deliberately becoming pregnant in order to quit school.
7. The controversial practice of going steady while still in the early teens is considered by some as one of the principal causes of unmarried pregnancy.

Obviously, this problem, as well as the whole problem of juvenile delinquency and adult crime, is a reflection of some malfunction of our entire society as well as that of the home. But, the home itself is a product of changing times. The fact is that someone in our society must undertake the task of inculcating in our young people the right kinds

of values and the right kinds of behavior.

Who is to do it?

It is not the purpose of this Page to argue for or against the inclusion of sex education in our schools, but rather to examine some of the basic fundamentals that should help determine the nature and content of American secondary education. From primitive times on, education, whatever its form, had the basic responsibility of preparing young people for adult living and thereby safeguarding and promoting the well-being not only of the individual but of the whole community. Education still has this prime function today. Admiral Rickover and those who feel as he does are correct in arguing that America faces a crisis in its competition with Russia and that America will be served best if its young people are trained adequately in the sciences — as scientists and engineers — in order to cope with this crisis. But, in addition to training scientists and engineers, we have to educate our young people to cope with the multiplicity of other responsibilities and problems they face as young people and will face as workers, husbands or wives, as parents, as neighbors and as citizens. Following are some of these problems:

As Children and Teen-agers

1. Family problems, such as: sibling rivalries; favoritism by parents; financial difficulties; conflicts with one or both parents over the use of the car, telephone or buying of clothes and dating; broken homes.
2. Relations with other young people involving such matters as acceptance by others; dating; going steady; what is right and wrong with respect to sexual behavior; how to manage and control the demands of the body; how to reconcile values and standards of one's peers with those of parents and society; how to cope with guilt feelings of all kinds.
3. Preparation for the future, which embraces such questions as whether to continue or not to continue in school; lack of ability or interest in school; what to plan for; how to get a job; how to

major in school and in college; what career to plan for; how to get a job; how to reconcile the demands for independence with those for independence.

As Adults

4. Marriage and family living problems, such as choosing the right partner; premarital adjustment involving personality, parents, courtship and sex; early and later marriage adjustment with respect to differences in personality, emotional maturity, habits, values and standards pertaining to sex, friends, and family demands and obligations; differences with respect to management of family finances, rearing of children, and recreation; problems growing out of illness of self, spouse, or children; planning for the future.
5. Employment and career problems which include selecting the area of work for which one is best equipped; finding a job; competition with others; getting

along with co-workers and immediate supervisors; relationship with unions either as a worker or as an employer.

6. Citizenship responsibilities: Keeping well-informed; participating in, assisting in, or responding to community drives; choosing between candidates for public office; serving in the armed forces; obeying laws and ordinances.

Whether it is or is not the school's function, the school has gradually been entrusted with more and more of the responsibilities previously performed by the home and the church. Unless the trend is changed, that is, unless parents and other agencies re-assume the full responsibility for training young people in becoming mature adults in all aspects of living — not merely intellectual development — the schools seem to be the most logical agency to assume these responsibilities.

¹ Kubie, Lawrence S. "Are We Educating for Maturity," *NEA Journal*, January 1959.

² Bernar, Jesse. "American Family Behavior."

Instructional Materials

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School, Mt. Vernon, New York

NEW A-V MATERIALS

Occupations Charts. For a bird's-eye view of the world of work, send for a set of Occupational Orientation Charts (12 charts, each 19" x 25"), priced at \$2.00 per set, available from the B'nai B'rith Vocational Service Bureau, 1129 Vermont Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C.

1960 Calendar. Teachers may be interested in this full-color "Official United Nations Engagement Calendar for 1960." It contains 12 beautifully reproduced, full-color photos of selected UN headquarters scenes. It also offers two pages of interesting and authoritative historical data about the United Nations. For cost and other particulars write to U.S. Committee for the U.N., 816—21 Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.

World History Book List. Teachers of world history will want at least one copy—and perhaps several—of a new bulletin entitled, "World History Book List for High

Schools: A Selection for Supplemental Reading." Write to National Council for the Social Studies, 1201—16 St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

Rubber. A 16-page fact booklet on natural rubber, "Natural Rubber — How Nature and Science Serve Mankind," that provides figures on production and consumption, tells how and where natural rubber is grown, and recounts its historical background, is available free. Write to Natural Rubber Bureau, 1631 K Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

New Catalog. United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Avenue, New York 29, has a new 1960 catalog available of films and filmstrips. In the Social Studies (history and geography) many new films are available. Other new subjects described in the catalog offer an approach to the study and appreciation of English literature, architecture, etc.

FILMS

Belgian Congo: Giants and Dwarfs. 13 min.

Color. Black and white. Sale/rental. Films of the Nations Distributors, Inc., 62 W. 45 St., New York 36, N. Y. A film on the enchanted land of the eastern Belgian Congo and Ruanda Urundi. Seen are customs and life among the Watusi and the Pygmies.

Magna Charta—Parts I and II. 17 min. each.

Sale/rental. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill. Part I deals with "The Rise of the English Monarchy," while Part II deals with "The Revolt of the Nobles and the Signing of the Charter." Both films bring to the classroom the magnificent sweep of English history, of human struggles, frustrations, and conflicts that gave us a document of Freedom.

Here Is Tomorrow. 30 min. Sale/rental. The Cooperative League, 23 W. 45 St., New York 19, N. Y. This is a stirring documentary film telling the story of the development of American cooperatives. Shows how two and a half million farm and city families have built a giant "people's business."

The Calendar: Story of its Development. 11 min. Sale. Black and White. Color. Coronet Films, Inc., 65 E. So. Water St., Chicago 1, Ill. Traces the development of our calendar through Egyptian, Babylonian, and Roman culture. The steps which led to the Julian and eventually the Gregorian calendar are outlined. The system devised by the Mayan civilization is also examined.

Wings to Austria. 27 min. Color. Free loan. Pan-American World Airways, 135 E. 42 St., New York 17, N. Y. Shows life and habits, scenes of typical activities in various cities in Austria.

The Invisible Keystone. 27 min. Black and white. Color. Sale. McGraw-Hill Book Co., Textfilm Dept., 330 W. 42 St., New York 36, N. Y. British constitutional achievement; its spread and effect upon the Dominions and Asia.

Background to Federation. 27 min. Black and

white. Sale. McGraw-Hill Book Co. Ten Caribbean island units have pooled their resources in a common future, as part of the British Commonwealth. What are their problems, hopes, and aspirations? These and other pertinent questions are discussed by authorities.

American Look. 28 min. Color. Free loan. The Jam Handy Organization, 2821 E. Grand Blvd., Detroit 11, Mich. This "Freedoms Foundation" award-winning film is sponsored by Chevrolet. In it America's leading designers show a cross section of today's good design elements. This film tends to give a fresh impression of cultural trends in our land.

FILMSTRIPS

Lands of the Far East. Set of five filmstrips in color. Sale. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill. Hong Kong, Thailand and Japan are covered. Authentic color photographs and maps are tied together with picture captions to carry the story. The titles are: "Hong Kong: Crossroads of the Far East," "Rivers and Rice in Thailand," "Japanese Fishermen," "Farm Village in Japan," "Japanese Workshops and Factories."

The American Revolution. 62 fr. Color. Sale. Life Filmstrips, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y. Tells the whole familiar story, from the earliest protests against British Colonial policies to the inauguration of our first president. The pictures include many old prints, documents and engravings that have seldom been reproduced in any form; an authoritative record of the most vital years in our national history.

Spotlight on South Africa. Color. Free. 68 fr. Audio-Visual Associates, Box 243, Bronxville, N. Y. Tells of South Africa's Bantu people. Traces the history of South Africa, life among the Bantu in the 19th century, the northern movement of white pioneers, and the role of the Bantu in a modern, highly industrialized society.

World Control of Atomic Energy. 56 fr. Sale. Black and white. Film Publishers, Inc., 25

Broad St., New York 4, N. Y. Problems that confront the world in setting up international atomic controls. U.S. and Russian proposals are discussed.

The Middle East: Crossroads of Three Continents. 58 fr. Sale. Black and white. Office of Educational Activities, The N. Y. Times, 229 W. 43 St., New York 36, N. Y. Depicts the strategic, political, and economic im-

portance of the area from Turkey to Pakistan; and the Arab-Israeli situations.

Zenger and the Freedom of the Press. 35 fr. Sale. Heritage Filmstrips, 89-11 63rd Dr., Rego Park 74, N. Y. Zenger's life in relationship to the struggle for freedom of the press; the crucial Zenger trial and its far-reaching effects.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

Head, Department of Social Studies, Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia

Origins of the American Revolution. By John C. Miller. Stanford, Cal.: Stanford University Press, 1959. Pp. 530, xxvii. \$7.50

The years between 1763 and 1776 were among the most climactic in American history. In this short period thirteen colonies turned from loyalty to the British Empire to revolt and a war to protect their declared but unestablished independence.

Historians have long argued about the reasons for the change in thinking among those Americans whom we term Patriots. Some authors have found their answers in the economic motive; others have emphasized social, religious, or political factors. Since its appearance in 1943, one of the best studies of this period has been John Miller's *Origins of the American Revolution*. Taking an eclectic approach, Mr. Miller combined wide reading in source materials, and an excellent understanding of differing points of view, with a sound organization and clarity of style.

Long out of print, the Stanford Press has made Mr. Miller's work again available. There are two important additions; an introduction and a bibliography, both strangely missing from the original edition. In the former, the author makes mention of some of the more significant ideas and studies of the last decade. The bibliography is not com-

plete, but has merit in its selectivity and suggestiveness.

Few scholarly monographs are so easily and enjoyably read by good-to-better high school students. Teachers and school librarians will do well to purchase multiple copies before this edition is exhausted.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

State University of New York
College of Education at Cortland

This is Communism. By David E. Weingast. New York: Oxford Book Company, 1959. Pp. x, 178. \$3.75.

This booklet is primarily designed for students in high school and junior college. To be used as a guide, its purpose is to acquaint them with the nature of communism and to point out to them its inherent threat to the free societies everywhere, and particularly to the American way of life. To meet the communist challenge, as directed by the Kremlin, the author firmly believes that our schools, while not neglecting to emphasize the fundamentals of American democracy, should spend more time in teaching our young people "some of the basic facts about the world communist organization: its purposes, its structure, its strength, its weaknesses, its meaning for America." (p. 2).

With the help of a fellowship award from

the Ford Foundation's Fund for the Advancement of Education, the author did considerable research into communism. As a consequence, he was able to incorporate, in a condensed form, some of the important findings of reputable scholars in the field.

Within the compass of ten short and readable chapters, he has summarized such topics as the origin and ideology of communism, reasons for its appeal, the meaning of totalitarianism, the nature of the police state, the organizations and functions of the communist party, the role of communist propaganda, and the enslavement of the satellite states. In the concluding chapter, entitled "A Strategy for Free Men," he recommends that Americans should intensify their propaganda for democracy, thereby correcting many distortions and misstatements about life in the United States which are circulated by the Kremlin. Moreover, they should steadily remind the people of the world that Soviet Russia is the real "colonial" and "imperialist" power, as evidenced by the communist control of the ten satellites in eastern Europe. Most important of all, Americans must consistently improve their own democracy, while helping the uncommitted and underdeveloped areas of the world, mainly by economic aid, to achieve greater well-being and independence.

The teaching aids, such as the review and thought questions at the end of each chapter, the suggested readings, and the glossary in the appendix, greatly add to the value of the booklet. Here is a helpful guide for all teachers who are interested in teaching the facts of communism to their students.

RICHARD H. BAUER

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

Russia and the Soviet Union: A Modern History. By Warren B. Walsh. *The University of Michigan History of the Modern World.* Edited by Allan Nevins and Howard M. Ehrmann. Ann Arbor: The

University of Michigan Press, 1958. Pp. xv, 640, xxiii. \$10.00, text edition \$5.75.

This first volume of the *University of Michigan History of the Modern World* is an admirably written and lucidly presented history of Russia. Of the many one-volume books on the market, it appears to this reviewer the best of its kind.

Approximately four chapters are devoted to early history and the medieval period — emphasis being placed deliberately on the modern era. The six following chapters treat Russian history until about 1800, the next six are on the nineteenth century, and the remaining thirteen chapters on twentieth century Russia. It is a well balanced book in more than one respect. Political, economic and social, intellectual and cultural history, and foreign policy are all covered with exemplary clarity and directness. The author has well succeeded in writing an absorbing history which will be of value not only to the beginning student, but also to the advanced one. The work is richly documented, the numerous judiciously chosen quotations either from contemporaries, eye-witnesses, or subsequent historians, Soviet and non-Russian writers, enliven the presentation. The evidence is carefully and objectively weighed, and the organization of the work is excellent throughout. Considering the size of the volume, the author has compressed an amazing amount of material into the study, but done it so skillfully as not to burden the reader.

The beginning student and general reader will find occasional references to comparable events and policies in French or English history helpful, though the author stresses throughout the uniqueness of Russia's historical development. The advanced student will appreciate the different interpretations, evaluations, and estimates of personalities, policies and events which are skillfully interwoven with the text, and especially the numerous references to Soviet Russian historical writing. It is evident on every page that the author, rather than treading on familiar ground, has made a detailed study

of the major sources as well as of many others, all of which gives his work a bright new color and refreshing flavor. It combines impartiality of approach with a clear, uncompromising point of view. The work is provided with "Notes," a valuable section on "Suggested Readings," and an index.

ALFRED D. LOW

Youngstown University
Youngstown, Ohio

Government in Modern Society. By R. Wallace Brewster. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1958. Pp x, 619. \$6.00.

The conventional introductory course in political science in American colleges and universities is either a course in the principles and problems of modern government, with emphasis on democratic government, or a course in American Government. There is an increasing tendency to design a course which will combine these two approaches, one which will introduce the student to the principles of government and which will at the same time give special attention to American government and politics. Since most American students may take only the introductory course in political science, and since they should be particularly well acquainted with the governmental institutions and processes of their own country, there is much to be said in favor of this combined approach. The drawbacks, however, are obvious, for the net effect may be that students will obtain neither a sound grasp of basic principles of government and politics nor a thorough understanding of the ways in which their own government operates. An added question is whether the same course may be suitable as a terminal course and as an introduction to more specialized work in political science.

Professor Brewster is convinced by his long experience in developing introductory work in political science at the Pennsylvania State University that the combined approach is the best. He even seems to believe that students can profitably be exposed to all the

material in his text during one semester. This is indeed a bold assumption.

For those who prefer the combined approach, with a heavy emphasis on American models, this text can be highly commended. It is an intelligent and reasonably comprehensive introduction to the great problems of modern government, and to the government of the United States. It has very little specific information about other governments. It gives inadequate attention to such topics as federalism and civil rights, to the whole field of local government, and to modern dictatorships. The two chapters on international relations have a strong world government flavor, which gives a rather unrealistic introduction to the contemporary international scene and which leads the author into such excesses of enthusiasm as to describe the European Coal and Steel Community as "the world's first negotiated supra-national government" and "a real federal union in one specialized area of international relations." He is clearly on sound ground, however, when he insists that "the problem of securing a peaceful world order is our greatest social problem."

NORMAN D. PALMER

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Crisis Diplomacy: A History of U. S. Intervention Policies and Practices. By D. A. Graber. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1959. Pp. xviii, 402. \$6.75.

The recent problems presented by Hungary and Lebanon to Washington — whether to intervene or not — are just two definite examples of the many which have been facing Washington since the formation of this Republic. Within a larger framework, this dilemma is inseparable from the dichotomy presented by what statesmen are saying that they are doing and what they actually do. Nowhere has this abyss been more striking than in the field of non-intervention. The United States has been theoretically committed to the principle of non-intervention and, until the end of the 19th century, has

been able to live up to that principle outside the Western hemisphere (due to lack of concrete interests). It has been also able to prevent the intervention of European nations in the affairs of the Western hemisphere, due to the operation of the Monroe Doctrine. But the operation of that very same doctrine made it possible for Washington to intervene at will in the affairs of the Western hemisphere. Then, throughout the 20th century, official pronouncements and practice moved further and further apart — until today the former tend to have hardly any relevance for the latter.

The present study aims to disentangle the theory and practice of non-intervention and to confront one with the other throughout different periods of American history. It surveys, from 1789 to 1958, chronologically, and by regions, the policy of intervention and non-intervention. Supported by a grand display of sound erudition and a good index, this massive work is a definite contribution to one of the most confusing aspects of American foreign policy.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

University of Bridgeport
Bridgeport, Connecticut

A Primer on Communism: 200 Questions and Answers. By George W. Cronin. Edited by Howard Oiseth. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1957. Pp. 190. \$2.50.

This is a useful little book of Soviet Communism, designed to provide the reader with "rudimentary knowledge of the subject." Two hundred questions most often asked on the all-important subject of Communism are here answered clearly, succinctly, and in a straightforward manner. The author has succeeded in presenting basic information on the Soviet regime, brushing aside the thick undergrowth of Communist terminology and theory which is often so confusing to the beginning student. What he stresses throughout is the practice of present-day Communism, the actual life especially in the Soviet Union in its political, economic, social, and cultural aspects, though there are also

references to China and the East European satellites of the U.S.S.R.

Quotations are numerous, but the sources are not given; also, while the work has an index, it contains no bibliography. Yet in spite of a few shortcomings — unavoidable perhaps in as highly condensed a work as this one — this book should serve well its purpose as a "primer" to Soviet Communism. It deserves to be widely circulated and read.

ALFRED D. LOW

Youngstown University
Youngstown, Ohio

Social Problems and Social Action. By Mary Elizabeth Walsh and Paul Hanly Furfey. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1958. Pp. xiv, 465. \$5.00.

This is a unique and original textbook in educational sociology or social relationships. Written from the Roman Catholic point of view, this orientation — one which the Catholic hierarchy have been espousing for several decades — needs stating both for non-Catholics and for the faithful who may not always have had a total conception of the objectives of the Church in this social sphere.

That they are definite and that each represents part of an integrated appraisal of the demands and necessities of modern times is not to be gainsaid.

Moreover, lest anyone think that such an appraisal must be only visionary, detached-from-life, or "other-worldly," the facts are that the reverse is true. Arm-chair sociologists and other do-gooders are more likely to take the "idealistic" (in the Utopian sense) view than these people (Catholic clergy and teaching laymen) who work directly with the sub-stratum (among others) of American society and thus do not put all their emphasis — or interpretation — on the mores and valuations of middle-class family and individual; the results of this tendency have frequently skewed the analysis in terms of "status-seekers" and social climbers.

Dr. Walsh, while connected with Catholic University, is also Director, Fides Neighbor-

hood House, Washington; Dr. Furfey is assistant director of the Juvenile Delinquency Evaluation Project of the City of New York.

Of course it is not necessary to repeat here that a lack of understanding of the so-called American slum — both urban and rural — is a contributing factor to those circumstances which have produced the blight on personality and the deterioration in the cities that we find so embarrassing internationally. Indeed, it may easily be stated that this is the number one problem for sociology, the church, the school, and government on all levels.

Chapter 11, "The Subproletariat," presents this dilemma in a new light. While Chicago's Gold Coast and Slum, The Gang, and other manifestations of this imbalance in society are well known, I do not hesitate in saying that — in the reviewer's judgment, at least — Walsh and Furfey have plowed new ground.

A great deal more could be said — especially in terms of "War as a Social Problem" (Chapter 12), "The Adult Criminal" (Chapter 9), etc., but it should be enough here to recommend *Social Problems and Social Action* for adult reading, library research, and wherever it fits the general program, as a textbook.

KENNETH V. LOTTICK

Montana State University
Missoula, Montana

Revolution and Reaction, 1848-1852. A Mid-Century Watershed. By Geoffrey Bruun. An Anvil Original, under the general editorship of Louis L. Snyder, No. 31. Princeton: D. Van Nostrand Co., 1958. Pp. 192. \$1.25.

This is another excellent little study in the fine series of Van Nostrand Anvil Books which fill a real need in providing brief but authoritative discussions of significant historic periods and problems. Written by a noted historian, this work, like its predecessors in the series, is divided into two parts,

the first consisting of the text proper and the second of judiciously chosen and closely integrated Readings.

The upheavals of 1848, lying midway between the French Revolution of 1789 and the Russian Revolution of 1917, constitute, according to the author, "a dividing line, a watershed." The revolution of 1848 was in some respects, he holds, an attempt to complete the French Revolution, in other respects it anticipated the Russian Revolution. The author, who has drawn also on the large number of studies which have been published on the revolutions of 1848 at the occasion of their centennial, believes that their study offered insight in the development and character of revolutions in general and also helped to explain the reverses suffered by democracy in the twentieth century. Though the revolutions failed in 1848 and immediately thereafter, great forces which were soon to become victorious came then to the fore — nationalism, industrialism, and socialism. The booklet is also provided with an up-to-date bibliography and an index.

ALFRED D. LOW

Youngstown University
Youngstown, Ohio

The Foundations of Capitalism. By Oliver C. Cox. New York: Philosophical Library, 1959. Pp. 500.

In this well-written volume, the first of a projected three-volume work on the subject of capitalism, Professor Cox presents his theory of capitalism as an introduction to the general subject of the rise and development of the capitalistic system. His approach to the subject, which is that of a sociologist rather than an economic historian, may be described as totalistic or holistic. His aim is to explain the total "pattern" of cultural relations which make up the capitalistic system.

In developing his theory of capitalism the author traces the rise and growth of capitalism by starting with city state of Venice, and then moving on to Florence, Genoa, the Hanseatic League, Amsterdam and other Dutch

cities, and England where the first phase of capitalism reached its highest development. Capitalism, Cox explains, emerges only where five conditions are met: (1) there must be a unique economic organization, which favors industrial development, and a psychological attitude which supports financial accumulation; (2) there must be a stable democratic government controlled by businessmen; (3) religion must be nationalized; (4) there must be a broad urban social base; and (5) there must be an opportunity for expansion through trade with less advanced countries. Since these six conditions were first found in the sovereign city of Venice, Cox asserts that capitalism had its origins in that city but came to flower in nineteenth century England.

The author points out effectively that capitalism is not a mere collection of discrete social traits and material objects, but is instead an integrated whole with a spirit and cultural existence that is independent of the individuals who participate in its affairs. In doing so he has moved far beyond those economic historians who have very little of a framework on which to hang their masses of historical data. It is this aim of developing an integrated theory of capitalism that makes Cox's volume on the foundations of capitalism a very worth-while contribution to the extensive literature on the subject of capitalism. One can look forward with a great deal of interest to his forthcoming volumes on finance, state, and military capitalism, which will probably be the source of much more disagreement than is this preliminary volume.

ALLAN G. GRUCHY

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

Encyclopedia of the Papacy. By Hans Kuhner. New York: Philosophical Library, 1958. Pp. 249. \$6.00.

With the advent of a new Pope and an active international program such as the coming Ecumenical Council, this encyclopedia will fill a need where persons desire

information on specific activities and contributions of former Popes. This volume, arranged chronologically, covers the key developments marking the reigns of some 260 Popes of the Roman Catholic Church from Saint Peter to Pius XII. Record is also made of anti-popes and other schismatic claimants to the papal throne. Translated from a German lexicon the entries read well and contain numerous human interest items. Most of the references, however, are quite concise. For example, such great leaders as Gregory VII, Innocent III and Pius XII rate but two pages each. The book would also be more helpful if it carried definitions of many religious and Catholic terms, including Latin words used throughout.

RICHARD E. GROSS

Stanford University
Stanford, California

The Female Offender. By Caesar Lombroso and William Ferrero. New York: Philosophical Library, 1958.

Caesar Lombroso, the 19th century Italian criminologist, is well-known to those interested in the scientific study of crime causation. His theory of anthropological determinism, i.e., that criminals, or at least a large percentage of them, are "born" and not "made," is frequently considered the first important break with the traditional criminal law approach to crime.

Written more than 70 years ago in collaboration with William Ferrero, *The Female Offender* applies this theory of anthropological determinism specifically to female criminals. Essentially, the position taken is that female criminals, and particularly prostitutes, are closer to the earlier stages of human evolution than are "normal," law-abiding women. Female offenders are considered to be atavistic in the sense that they are hereditary throwbacks to ancestral, primitive women, who, presumably, were more prone to anti-social behavior.

In an effort to support this theory, Lombroso describes supposed physical differences between female offenders and normal

women. These physical differences have been found, it is claimed, by various anthropometric measurements taken of samples of female offenders and non-offenders, both living and dead. For example, Lombroso concludes from such measurements that "... The lower jaw of female criminals, and still more of prostitutes, is heavier than in women of moral lives ... length of limbs are less in female criminals than in normals ... Criminals have the darker hair and eyes, and this holds good also to a certain extent of prostitutes ..."

Many other physical differences between female offenders and non-offenders are proclaimed, including such varied factors as tattooing, sensitivity to touch, convolutions of brain tissue and even the comparative number of facial wrinkles! Naturally, these physical differences are interpreted as evidence that in general the female offender is closer than the non-offender to early, evolutionary primitive or "savage" woman.

Unfortunately, we cannot examine here the many additional intricacies of Lombrosian theory except to note that they frequently involve supposed constitutional differences between types of female offenders and male offenders.

As to the validity of Lombrosian theory, it is, of course, severely questioned by much modern criminological thought, particularly that of England, France and the United States. Many scientific tests, conducted after Lombroso's work, have failed to reveal even the physical differences which he postulated. The evidence that his theory is based upon faulty scientific technique is conclusive.

Notwithstanding this, *The Female Offender* remains an interesting exhibit of one of the most famous attempts to explain crime causation on an anthropological basis.

JOHN M. WILSON

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

HELPFUL CLASSROOM AIDS

BOOKNOTES

Ten new titles have been added this fall to

the popular "Landmark" and "World Landmark" series of books published by Random House, 457 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York.

All volumes in both series are authored by top-ranking writers. Each is priced at \$1.95 and contains 192 pages, including 20-25 two-color drawings or a 12-page photo insert. While the books are geared specifically to the reading abilities of youngsters in grades 5-9, many senior high school students and adults will find them thoroughly enjoyable. This fall's new titles are as follows:

Stonewall Jackson. By Jonathan Daniels. A noted journalist and author, himself a native of the South, tells the life story of one of the most colorful figures of the Civil War.

The Battle for the Atlantic. By Jay Williams. A faithful account of the crucial battle—on, over, and under the sea—that took place in the Atlantic from 1940 to 1943, during the terrible years of World War II.

The First Trans-Atlantic Cable. By Adele Gutman Nathan. The inspiring story of the men of genius who, despite countless early failures, worked tirelessly together to make a success of the great gamble.

The Story of the U.S. Air Force. By Robert Loomis. An accurate, dramatic history of the U. S. Air Force, told in terms of the men who lived it, by a former Air Force cadet.

The Swamp Fox of the Revolution. By Stewart H. Holbrook. A biography of General Francis Marion, the "Swamp Fox," who harassed the British in South Carolina during the American Revolution.

Chief of the Cossacks. By Harold Lamb. A powerful biography of Stenka Razin, who attempted to free the Cossacks from the rule of the Muscovites 300 years ago, and who remains a hero to his people to this day.

The Adventures of Ulysses. By Gerald Gottlieb. A skillfully written version of what has been called the first and greatest adventure tale of all.

Coming in Early Spring!

West's' STORY OF OUR COUNTRY

Revised for 1960 by William E. Gardner

This newly revised junior high school text continues its successful approach to American history through the narrative form. Recent developments are included for a wide range of topics: the United Nations, the Cold War, the Space Age, social legislation, industrial growth. Previously treated themes — the Westward Movement, the United States in world affairs, Constitutional growth, science in historical perspective — have been ex-

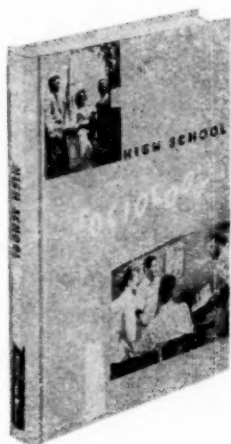
panded and clarified so that the students may understand readily their significance.

Student interest is maintained by the inclusion of numerous, colorful maps and photographs, a "Then and Now" section that correlates the past with the present, graded activities at the end of each unit, and the "Our Presidents" series covering the lives of our leaders from Washington to Eisenhower.

Journey toward self-understanding

HIGH SCHOOL SOCIOLOGY

By Cole and Montgomery



This text is a complete presentation of introductory sociology based on the experiences and responsibilities of high school students. The authors strive to help the student develop more mature attitudes toward himself and his associates, and acquire an intelligent awareness of the problems confronting society. Sufficient background material is included, and important sociological terms are introduced naturally so that they become a part of the student's working vocabulary.



ALLYN and BACON, Inc.

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Englewood Cliffs, N. J.

Dallas

Chicago

San Francisco

William the Conqueror. By Thomas B. Costain. A dramatic biography of William I, King of England, whose ascent to power in 1066 changed the course of English history.

Jesus of Nazareth. By Harry Emerson Fosdick. A beautifully written book which will prove inspiring reading for people of all ages and of all religious faiths.

Julius Caesar. By John Gunther. A gifted author brings to life the personal triumphs and final tragedy of one of the greatest men who ever lived.

ARTICLES

"The Road to a Durable Peace," by Deputy Under-Secretary of State Robert Murphy. *Department of State Bulletin*, June 8, 1959.

"What Should the West Do Next on Germany?" Three different views put forth by Joseph Alsop, David Lawrence and Norman Thomas, *Foreign Policy Bulletin*, July 15, 1959.

"What Ivan Knows and Doesn't Know," by Osgood Caruthers, *New York Times Magazine*, August 9, 1959.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

The Power of Nonviolence. By Richard B. Gregg. Nyack, New York: Fellowship Publications, 1959. Pp. xi, 192. \$2.50.

Defense In the Nuclear Age. By Stephen King-Hall. Nyack, New York: Fellowship Publications, 1959. Pp. xiv, 234. \$2.75.

The Nations and the United Nations. By Robert M. MacIver. New York: Manhattan Publishing Company, 1959. Pp. xii, 186. \$3.00.

The West in Crisis. By James P. Warburg. New York: Doubleday and Company, 1959. Pp. xi, 192. \$3.50.

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(Continued from page 82)

relinquish to the states, for instance, certain types of taxation not easily available to them now? Are there not possibilities to be explored by experts in some phase of income tax credits whereby the Treasury would waive some part of its tax to offset rising school taxes? In short, we feel that every avenue should be explored whereby the support of public schools may be kept where the control and direction should be. The Federal Government should help, but by relinquishing some of its taxing powers, not by increasing them in order to gain funds to be returned to their source; this is expensive and dubious practice.

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